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Educational News and Editorial Comment

JOHN J. TIGERT

John J. Tigert retired on September 1, 1928, from the office of United States commissioner of education to become president of the University of Florida. Dr. Tigert was commissioner for seven years. During his term of office he developed the Bureau of Education in a number of important directions. He secured from Congress support for the improvement of the statistical reports issued by the bureau. He brought the bureau into intimate contact with a number of municipalities, states, and institutions by organizing educational surveys. He developed in official circles in Washington more successfully than any other commissioner an understanding of the needs of American education and of the responsibility of the federal government to co-operate with the states in fostering education.

Dr. Tigert and his associates in the Bureau of Education were obliged to carry on their work with very little active support from the organized educators of the country. The National Education Association has been absorbed in a campaign for a department of education and apparently has been so shortsighted as to think of

the bureau as a hindrance to the realization of its plans. The organized educational forces of public education have lost time and influence by their neglect of the Bureau of Education. Nowhere in the world is there an official source of information that compares with this bureau. If the Bureau of Education were properly supported, it could help to mold education in this country in a legitimate way, not by dictation but through scientifically collected information.

The *New York Times* comments on Dr. Tigert's resignation as follows:

> United States Commissioner of Education John J. Tigert has resigned in order to accept the presidency of a university maintained by one of the states. This emphasizes the fact that education is still regarded primarily as a state function. Even the highest educational office in the federal government, concerned with the welfare of twenty-seven million children and a million teachers, is regarded as of less importance professionally than the executive headship of a minor university. Dr. Tigert's immediate predecessor resigned to take the provostship of another state university and then the superintendency of schools in Tulsa, Oklahoma. Another predecessor quitted office to accept the presidency of a private university.
>
> Whether, as has been strongly and widely urged by the National Education Association and other organizations, there should be a federal department of education with or without cabinet representation, it must be felt that, even with its present title and function, the United States commissionership of education should in dignity and in influence be pre-eminent among the educational offices in America and invite to its occupancy foremost men. Horace Mann accomplished his great work in Massachusetts, which mightily promoted the development of the public-school system throughout the United States, under a title which seemed to belittle his office but which he magnified by his service. The United States commissioner is not clothed with much administrative power, but his opportunity to serve the schools of all the states is great if he is supremely qualified for the office and willing to live on its meager salary.
>
> The function of the Bureau of Education, which is a division of the Department of the Interior, is "to collect statistics and facts showing the condition and progress of education in the several states and territories and to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems and otherwise promote the cause of education through the country." About its only definite ministerial duties are those which relate to the management of the schools for natives in Alaska and the supervision of "the government reindeer industry" in that territory and to the oversight of the agricultural colleges and schools

of mechanic arts under the Morrill act. But there is an undefined work of collection, diffusion, assistance, and promotion—a field extending across all state lines but erasing none, bounded only by the ability of the commissioner and of the staff at his command. Such service as the bureau can give in making available to all the states the experience of each and in bringing to them the counsel of other lands and times should not and need not impair the state's obligation to its children. It should rather intensify the state's sense of responsibility as well as improve its educational theory and effort.

It were better, perhaps, that one should be called to the position who has not only had technical training as a teacher and a cultural background but who has also had his experience largely within the range of the public schools. No university president or city or state superintendent is "too good" for this office. It will be difficult to find an educator in any field good enough. Dr. Tigert, educational soldier that he is, with an excellent record, has chosen to go back into action—to the educational front. The position calls for one who will be content to ponder over the grand plan of campaign and give counsel to those who carry on as teachers in this greatest of democracy's undertakings.

PROFESSIONAL READINGS FOR PRINCIPALS

The Research Division of the National Education Association, stimulated by the report on the duties and characteristics of principals prepared and published by the Department of Elementary School Principals, has issued a bulletin of sixty-four pages entitled *The Principal Studies His Job.* This bulletin summarizes the literature dealing with the principalship. It contains an exhaustive bibliography as well as a synopsis of numerous articles and books. It will undoubtedly serve, as its authors hope, to improve the professional training of principals.

The general character of the bulletin is illustrated by the following paragraphs.

The importance of professional study.—Until recently any teacher might be appointed to the elementary-school principalship regardless of professional preparation for the job. This condition has been changed by the rapid development of the position to one requiring special preliminary training and continuous study. The present tendency is for superintendents to require a minimum of the Bachelor's degree for candidates. A majority of the state credentials affecting the elementary-school principalship agree upon four years of college as the basic preparation. According to one study, approximately 46 per cent of principals have the Bachelor's degree or more. Of the selected group of principals studied in the Seventh Yearbook, 85 per cent had the Bachelor's degree or higher. The level of training is rising. In a short time the Master's degree will be generally accepted as the standard training. In keeping up with his

progressive fellow-workers, the administrator will need the aid of advanced training.

Another stimulus to continuous study is the increased professional training of teachers. The length of the normal-school program is being increased in some states to three and four years. Teachers are attending summer schools in greater numbers. The principal who desires to exercise professional leadership among his teachers must base that right upon sound and progressive professional knowledge.

The demands of many communities are such that the principal must be an educational expert. The policy of making the principal responsible for the educational program of his school community has met with acceptance among superintendents. Parents through their organizations are asking to be informed on the new developments in education. In these contacts there exist unlimited opportunities for persons with the training and ability necessary to assume the responsibility.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND HEALTH

Superintendent of Schools Emeritus W. L. Ettinger of New York City has stirred up vigorous discussion of an important question by a report which he recently submitted to the superintendent of schools as a result of a year's survey of the needs of the New York schools in the matter of medical inspection and health instruction. Dr. Ettinger has the training of a physician. He has experienced the deficiencies of the New York City system, in which medical inspection in the schools is the function of the city Board of Health. The head of this board has expressed his opposition to Superintendent Ettinger's report.

The discussion aroused by Dr. Ettinger's report concerns school administrators everywhere. It is the general opinion of those who have considered the matter that school systems cannot depend on boards of health. Such boards are primarily policing boards; they are not equipped to give the detailed care to children which is needed; nor are they competent to dictate wisely the policies of the schools even in those cases where public-health emergencies arise within the schools.

The contrast between the views expressed in the report of Dr. Ettinger and in the statement issued by the head of the city Board of Health is illuminating. There can be no doubt as to which view will command the support of educators.

The *New York Sun* reports Dr. Ettinger's recommendations as follows:

As a result of this study, Dr. Ettinger makes the following specific suggestions.

1. The Board of Education should assume control of the medical examination of school children.

2. A staff of physicians (part-time service) should be appointed for this work.

3. A medical report should be required of each child entering school, said report to be on a blank provided by the Board of Education and approved as to form by the Board of Health.

4. This report should be made as a result of an examination made by a physician designated by the parent or by a physician of the Board of Health.

5. A reorganization of the bureau of health education should be made along the following lines: health service, health instruction, and physical activities, all these branches to be under the supervision of the present director of health education.

6. A reassignment of the present staff should be effected to conform to the new organization: (*a*) assistant directors of health education to direct and supervise a staff of physicians and nurses in the conduct of health-service activities; (*b*) assistant directors of health education to direct and supervise a staff of special teachers in the conduct of health instruction; (*c*) assistant directors of health education to direct and supervise a staff of teachers of physical training in the conduct of physical activities.

7. A survey should be made of all clinical agencies throughout the city available for co-operation in follow-up work, and a list of these agencies and their location and other necessary information should be made available for use by heads of all schools.

8. No remedial treatment beyond first aid and prophylactic measures should be given in school buildings.

Dr. Ettinger in his report deplores the tremendous educational waste resulting from loss of instruction due to illness and the existence of a large percentage of physical defects in school children.

"The rising cost of education is beginning to attract public attention," Dr. Ettinger goes on. "The herding of great numbers of children in school buildings and mass instruction in large classes, made necessary by the congestion existing in large cities, make it imperative that we take every means to prevent educational loss, whether that loss is due to inefficient instruction or to ineffective instruction consequent upon the presence of physical defects and ailments in great numbers of our children."

Much time has been lost in tackling the problem in New York City because of the lack of a definite program of procedure co-ordinating the health activities of the various official and non-official agencies, in Dr. Ettinger's opinion.

Dr. Ettinger points out that the body officially intrusted with this work is the Bureau of Child Hygiene of the Department of Health, which for the last nineteen years, with the fullest co-operation of the school authorities, has worked to the limit of its financial ability to better the health conditions of the more than 1,000,000 children in the public schools.

The need for a larger number of nurses for school service, since "it is evident that the work of inspection and examination has failed to keep step with the increase in school population," also is pointed out.

A program of health service, in Dr. Ettinger's opinion, should provide medical examinations for the following groups:

1. All pupils in public schools.
2. All children to be assigned to special classes for the physically handicapped.
3. Applicants for training schools.
4. Candidates for licenses.
5. Absentee teachers and administrative employees.
6. Applicants for disability and retirement.

The objection raised to Dr. Ettinger's report by the head of the Board of Health as expressed in a letter to the superintendent and published by the *New York Sun* is as follows:

In today's newspapers I read a report submitted by Dr. Ettinger recommending that the Board of Education should assume control of the medical examination of school children. From time to time alarms have been sounded by persons who are interested in public health, advising me that Dr. Ettinger had set out to justify the taking over of the Health Department's functions in the medical examination of school children by the Department of Education.

I did not credit these alarms, because, as you no doubt recall, at the beginning of my term of office as commissioner of health, I visited you at your home and had a conference with you, at which time we agreed as to the proper division of functions of the two departments of the city government.

In so far as health work for school children is concerned, we agreed that it was proper to allocate the Health Department the technical work of diagnosis of communicable diseases and the medical examination of school children and that the Department of Education, in consonance with its name and its purposes, should educate the children with respect to the things that they ought to know about personal and community health as a part of the regular curriculum.

It is not only my personal belief but that of the foremost public-health men in the country that this is a proper division of functions and that, wherever the department of education has invaded the field of technical medical service, it has resulted in a serious setback of preventive medical work of the health department of such community.

I am, therefore, pained and surprised if Dr. Ettinger's recommendation be correctly reported.

VARIATIONS IN SCHOOL BUDGETS

In an article published in the *United States Daily* W. S. Deffenbaugh, chief of the City Schools Division of the Bureau of Education, makes the following statements regarding school budgets.

No hard and fast rule can be made as to what percentage of the total amount of the budget should be devoted to each item since conditions are not the same in all cities. For example, City A, a southern city, may find it necessary to expend only a relatively small amount for the operation of the school plant, while City B, a northern city, may find it necessary to expend a relatively large amount for this purpose. Conditions vary from year to year within the same system. For instance, a board of education may increase the salaries of teachers, and, if other expenses are not increased in like proportion, the percentage devoted to instruction would be increased.

The following table is presented to show the percentage of total current expenditures (1925–26) for thirty-five cities of 100,000 or more population for general control, instruction, operation of plant, maintenance of plant, co-ordinate activities and auxiliary agencies, and fixed charges; also, the lowest and the highest percentages among these thirty-five cities for each of these main items.

	Percentage of Total	Lowest Percentage	Highest Percentage
General control	3.7	1.2	5.5
Instruction	76.9	69.6	84.5
Operation of plant	9.6	5.3	13.9
Maintenance of plant	5.3	1.9	10.7
Co-ordinate activities and auxiliary agencies	2.6	0.2	3.7
Fixed charges	1.9	0.1	5.6

The school system spending the lowest or the highest percentage for any one of the foregoing general items is evidently departing considerably from the average practice in cities of 100,000 or more population.

Such comparisons as the foregoing make it evident that school administration can never be reduced to rule of thumb. Every situation which confronts a superintendent is a situation requiring the ability to adapt broad principles to local peculiarities.

There has appeared in recent announcements of a number of university departments of education a disposition to assume that school administrators can come into the possession of the results of scientific studies of education without exerting their minds to the extent of acquiring methods of investigation. Education as a science and as a practical art cannot reach the highest levels until the leaders in the field have the type of training which will prepare them to cope with the complexities of local situations. Every school system is unique in its problems. Analysis and experimentation are necessary in order that practical situations may be fully mastered. The

term "research" is by no means too academic a term to use in describing the duty of a superintendent who is confronted by the problem of organizing a school budget.

A McGUFFEY ANNIVERSARY

The Athens, Ohio, branch of the American Association of University Women organized last June a pageant commemorating McGuffey's contribution to education. A member of the faculty of the College of Education of Ohio University, describing the pageant, said:

> Nothing given in Athens for years has so aroused the community as did this. Most of the people here used *McGuffey's Eclectic Readers* in their childhood—indeed, the readers are still used in some country places in this part of the country—and the middle-aged and elderly people interpreting the episode called "Friday Afternoon Reminiscences" recited long passages memorized long years ago by the frequent hearing and repetition of the content of these famous readers. The oldest of this group was ninety-two; the youngest, about fifty-five. The costuming was in the style of 1840–50.

Some extracts from the pamphlet prepared for the pageant are as follows:

Biographical Note

William Holmes McGuffey was born in Washington County, Pennsylvania, September 28, 1800. His father, Alexander McGuffey, and his mother had come to this country from Scotland. Soon after the birth of William Holmes, the family removed to Ohio, settling near Sand Hill, now Coitsville, Mahoning County. While Mrs. McGuffey picked brush and helped clear the farm, the child was cradled, oftentimes, in a maple-sap trough hewn out for use in the sugar bush.

At eighteen, William McGuffey began the study of Latin, borrowing books and walking long distances once a week to recite to a country clergyman, Rev. Thomas Hughes. When the academy at Warren, Ohio, was completed in 1820, McGuffey presented himself for the applicants' examination. It was severe, and he failed. The humiliation, he said, proved the spur to further study and his future success in life.

He graduated from Washington College in 1826. He was elected at once to the chair of ancient languages at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. Seven years later he was appointed to a professorship in mental and moral philosophy. During this professorship, he was ordained to the ministry in the Presbyterian church. In his lifetime he preached three thousand sermons.

In 1836 he became president of Cincinnati College and in 1839 he became

president of Ohio University. Four years later he was called to the Woodward High School in Cincinnati. In 1845 he went to the chair of moral philosophy and political economy in the University of Virginia, at Charlottesville, where he remained until his death, May 4, 1873.

May 4, 1928, was the fifty-fifth anniversary of the death of William Holmes McGuffey, D.D., LL.D., author of the Eclectic Series of school readers. All over the land, even to distant parts of the civilized world, are men and women who turn back in memory to their earliest school days at the mere mention of these readers. It has been asserted by educators that these books have done more to improve the methods of elementary education than any other books ever printed.

It is fitting that tribute be paid to this man by a pageant in the form of a McGuffey Readers Revue at Ohio University, which he served as president for four years.

Introduction to Episode II

McGuffey sustained himself by teaching school through his collegiate course. He was graduated with honor at Washington College in 1826. From the position of school teacher in Kentucky he was called to the chair of ancient languages in Miami University at Oxford, Ohio. He was beloved by both students and faculty. It was no unusual sight to see McGuffey walking along the streets of Oxford deeply absorbed in a book and followed adoringly by some half-dozen students. One of his ways of working out his ideas of educational methods was to gather the children of the neighborhood together in the back yard of his home and to teach them. Different logs represented classes in reading, arithmetic, spelling, and geography.

Introduction to Episode IV

During the years when the McGuffey readers were used in the schools, Friday afternoon was the time for the exhibition of skill in elocution, spelling, and singing. It was then that the teacher "showed off" his prize pupils to visitors. It was then that selections from the fourth, fifth, and sixth readers were read with all the dramatic intonation of which the children were capable.

It is the hope of the interpreters of this episode that the audience may go back through the years with them to enjoy once more the fun as well as the seriousness of Friday afternoon in the little red schoolhouse.

SPECIALIZATION VERSUS GENERAL EDUCATION

The teachers of Mitchell, South Dakota, have been considering through a committee the requirements which should be imposed on elementary-school teachers who are to receive the salaries provided for those who continue their education beyond the normal school. The committee has prepared a statement which brings out clearly

the distinction between general education and special education. The statement is as follows:

The committee on investigation of requirements in the training for teachers in the grades of the Mitchell public schools submits the following report.

1. We believe that special training in the field in which one is working is of more immediate value to the teacher and to the children than is a so-called "cultural" training.

2. Since high-school teachers have special training for the particular field in which they work, it is only reasonable to expect similar preparation of elementary-school teachers in order for them to command equivalent salary.

3. Since it is the opinion of the committee that training in the special fields of education, English, social science, or natural science tends to have more direct bearing on the work of the elementary grades than do the other college courses, we hereby submit the following recommendation.

Beyond a two-year normal training course, the following shall be the minimum requirement of training in order that a teacher in the elementary grades command the salary given those holding degrees as defined in the salary schedule governing teachers in the Mitchell public schools: a major or a minor in education. In case one majors in education, then a minor in English, social science, or natural science shall be required. In case a minor in education is taken, then a major in English, social science, or natural science shall be required. A major is defined as thirty semester hours in a particular field; a minor, as twenty semester hours in a particular field.

A large share of the training given in normal schools is in professional courses in education. The recommendation here made that a major or minor in education be required in addition to the normal-school curriculum raises the question whether twenty or thirty hours more of such work is defensible. Usually sixty hours constitutes the full program of two college years. This report provides that the two years beyond the normal-school curriculum shall be devoted to the specialties mentioned to the extent of fifty hours.

J. C. Lindsey, superintendent of the Mitchell schools, asks for comments on the report from those who are interested in the problems of teacher-training.

INSTRUCTION ABOUT MONEY

The following statement was published in *School Life*.

A course of instruction in money management will be given experimentally to elementary pupils in two grades of the Driscoll and Devotion schools, Brookline, Massachusetts. The course was planned by a member of the faculty of the

high school who is chairman of the economics committee of the Massachusetts Teachers Federation. It is a systematic study of the implications of money as they confront the self-supporting adult: the necessity for work; capacity to earn; usefulness of work to others; payment in return for service; and use of money in saving, spending, and giving.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS

The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City, has issued two bulletins which show how communities and schools are organizing agencies which are equipped to care for children whose eyes are defective. One of these bulletins is entitled *Conserving the Sight of School Children;* the other is entitled *A Year in Preventing Blindness.*

A part of the summary issued with the second bulletin is as follows:

Remarkable progress in twenty years of organized effort to reduce the frequency of blindness in America, pointing to possible elimination of the principal diseases causing blindness and the reduction of eye injuries to a minimum, is shown in the bulletin recently issued by the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

The greatest single achievement has been in the field of ophthalmia neonatorum, commonly known as "babies' sore eyes." . . . .

The society is helping to safeguard the eyes of the next generation, the report points out, by following up its work for prevention of blindness at birth with demonstrations of preschool eye tests, preschool clinics, and co-operation in the establishment of eye-saving classes for the education of children with seriously defective vision. . . . .

Special "sight-saving classes" in public schools, first advocated by the society in 1911, have been established in eighty cities in eighteen states. There are now 292 such classes, in which, through the use of special large-type books, movable desks, ideal lighting, and special teaching methods, children with little vision are not only given the same type of education that children with full vision receive but taught how to conserve their remaining sight. However, whereas there are less than three hundred such classes, at least five thousand are needed, declares William Fellowes Morgan, president of the society, in a foreword to the report. . . . .

Hope is expressed in the report that at last the struggle of medical men with the scourge of trachoma, one of the great international sources of blindness, is being rewarded by some definite understanding of the causative factors of this disease of the eyes. Credit is given to Dr. Hideyo Noguchi, of the Rockefeller Institute, who died May 21 and whose research during the last year of

his life helped toward solving the mystery of trachoma, which has baffled medical men of the world for centuries.

Eye hazards of industrial occupations still constitute one of the most serious causes of blindness in America, the report emphasizes, despite the strides that have been made toward the prevention of accidents generally in industry. It has been estimated that about 15 per cent of the hundred thousand blind men and women in the United States lost their sight from this single source of blindness. Recognizing the importance of educating workers in dangerous occupations in care of the eyes, the society has during the last year brought the essential facts concerning eye hygiene, the prevention of accidental injury to the eyes, and the importance of good lighting before approximately three million men and women engaged in the most hazardous industries.

USE OF THE RADIO IN SCHOOLS

The London *Times Educational Supplement* recently published an article of which the following is a part.

The report of a special investigation in the County of Kent during the year 1927 has just been published. This interesting volume records the results of an experiment conducted in Kent under arrangements approved by the Education Committee of the County Council, and with the assistance of a grant from the Carnegie Trustees, to explore "the potential educational value of broadcasting" and more particularly to watch the effect of wireless lessons in elementary schools and to suggest improvements. The experiment, which has clearly been carried out with marked thoroughness and intelligence by the officers of the education authority and of the B.B.C., with the assistance of the Kentish teachers, constitutes an important contribution to a new branch of educational literature.

It is obvious to everybody that wireless has something to contribute to education. When we consider the difficulty of providing teachers of adequate qualifications in a populous democracy, the number of small schools in which one teacher only may be certificated, and the strength of the forces rooted in our common human nature which make for monotony, the value of this mechanical device for importing into the classroom a fresh voice and a novel range of experience becomes apparent. It is equally clear that mechanism is no substitute for personality and that, however much we may improve the apparatus for reception and the character of our wireless lectures, live teachers will always be wanted in our schools. But, while both these things are acknowledged, it has been so far uncertain how and under what conditions broadcasting can be most safely adopted as a normal instrument of public education. A careful supervision of the effects of wireless lessons given in different subjects and in a sufficient number of well-selected schools was needed before a confident conclusion could be reached upon this important issue. . . . .

It is interesting to note that the teachers, whose reports upon the wireless

lessons furnish the bulk of the evidence given in the report, are of the opinion that the broadcast lesson "imparted a knowledge of facts, stimulated interest in ways which could be definitely observed, created impressions as durable as those produced by their ordinary lessons, did not encourage inattention, were particularly stimulating to clever children, supplied views and information which the teachers themselves could not have supplied, gave fresh ideas for lessons, and interested the parents in some of the work that the children did in school." Such a testimonial, coming from the teachers whose interest and co-operation are essential if wireless is to have its place in our educational system, is significant and encouraging.

On the mechanical side, our investigators report that reception by headphones (expensiveness apart) is more satisfactory than reception through a loud-speaker. They find that a four-valve receiver is well adapted to the use of a school and, confirming the adage that "a little knowledge is a dangerous thing," consider that those teachers appear to have the fewest difficulties with transmission who make the least pretension to the possession of mechanical knowledge.

Finally, it is not every subject which lends itself readily to wireless in the schools. Our investigators originally limited their choice to those subjects only in which for one reason or another it seemed that a broadcast lesson would be specially valuable. Thus, they chose music by reason of the opportunities which it afforded for illustration, English literature because it enabled children to hear good reading, French in order that the voice of a real Frenchman might be heard, geography because travelers could be engaged to relate their actual experiences in foreign lands, history because a specialist's knowledge is necessary to supply a living background to the textbook, and so on. They did not choose algebra or arithmetic.

CARE OF SMALL CHILDREN IN BULGARIA

The following statement is quoted from the *Christian Science Monitor*.

In Bulgaria it would be largely superfluous to speak of "the working woman," for almost all Bulgarian women are engaged in work outside the home. A few of them work in the cities as laborers and small officials, but the vast majority of them live in villages and toil daily in fields, gardens, and meadows. They do as much work on the farms as their husbands. Such women leave home early in the morning, go to distant fields, and return late in the evening.

Naturally in such cases the mother cannot give proper care to her little children. The baby, of course, she takes with her, ties his little hammock to the bough of a tree in the field, and leaves him there all day to rock in the wind. But she does not like to take the other small children every day to the field, miles from the house, where they have nothing to do but to wait for the long days to end.

Such children would, of course, be better off in some school. Realizing this, several energetic women in the Bulgarian Federation of Women's Societies have begun to work for the creation of "Educational Institutes for the Children of the People." The first one of these was opened last year in the village of Chaeer. The village school building and school yard were placed at the disposal of the institute, and from the first of May until the last of August Mrs. R. Golemanova and another teacher gave training, care, and food to about fifty small children. They took charge of the children from eight in the morning until six in the evening, teaching them how to work and play and at appropriate times serving them wholesome, well-prepared food.

They were shown how to become better acquainted with gardens, fields, animals, and plants and to enjoy all the beautiful, pleasant, and useful things that a village can provide. The enterprise was financed by the Women's Federation and the English "Help-the-Children" Fund.

Now a similar institute has been opened in Sofia for the children of working mothers, and it is hoped that, with the help of the state, women's societies, and municipalities, many more such schools for little children may be created.

MOTION PICTURES AND EDUCATION IN HUNGARY

The following statement was published by the *United States Daily*.

Hungarian children will be taught in school by films, according to the decree just issued by Count Kuno Kleberlsberg, Hungarian minister of public instruction, and forwarded to the Department of Commerce on August 4 by Trade Commissioner George R. Canby, Paris. The report follows in full text.

"The Hungarian minister of public instruction, Count Kuno Kleberlsberg, has recently issued a decree by which 'film teaching' is declared obligatory for more than two hundred schools, according to a German press report. The films are to be shown in the schools themselves, and the exhibitors are bound to put their cinemas at the disposal of such schools as have no adequate showrooms. Conferences will be held in the provinces by the Hungarian-Dutch Cultural and Economic Company.

"In Budapest obligatory film shows have been organized for public and secondary schools for the past fifteen years. These will be intensified in the coming season. The Pedagogical Film Factory in Budapest is responsible for these conferences. The German reporter deplores that similar measures have not been taken in Germany.

"While Hungary has officially recognized that the film is the most important educational factor of today, in Germany only occasional conference speeches are made in this connection, and a small number of pioneer school people with insufficient subventions are endeavoring to introduce film tuition in their establishments. In Hungary the film is introduced in schools as an obligatory and regular tuition means, while in Germany the school-film movement is nothing but a feature-film competition for cinemas."

PEOPLE'S COLLEGES

The *New York Times* published the following paragraphs.

This summer witnesses the first session of a number of "people's" colleges, a new type of non-academic development in this country. They are modeled after the Danish folk school, which has been a most important factor in the adult-education movement of Europe.

The pioneer institution of this kind in America was founded five years ago at Henryville, Pennsylvania, and is known as Pocono People's College. Former students and educators who have studied the experiment at Pocono or in Denmark have organized people's colleges in their own communities. Last winter the extension division of the University of West Virginia invited the Pocono faculty to inaugurate a school at Waddington, West Virginia. In California the idea has had considerable experimentation. There it has been adapted principally to rural communities under the auspices of the State Department of Education. Professor Harry A. Overstreet, of the College of the City of New York, guided its introduction. The more recent openings of people's colleges are at Ashland, Michigan; Brasstown, North Carolina; and Nystead, Nebraska. The one at Berea, Kentucky, has been in session three years.

Pocono People's College is the outgrowth of Soren A. Mathiasen's experience in the field of adult education. He had studied in Denmark and attended the International People's College at Elsinore. In a speech delivered before the National Recreation Congress he created interest in the minds of a number of men who thought it well to try out the idea in this country. Funds were made available, and a stone building was erected on a high bluff in the Pocono Mountains, overlooking a great expanse of rolling valley land. Mr. Mathiasen has been the director since the inception of the school.

The minimized importance attached by Pocono to the academic and formal sides of education is best shown by its admission of students irrespective of former education. The student group now in session contains young men and women who have not gone farther than a secondary-school education as well as others who have been granted advanced degrees at universities. The range in ages is between eighteen and twenty-five.

Mr. Mathiasen does not lecture to his classes. The relationship between teacher and student is entirely informal. There are no examinations or quizzes; nor are there grades or credits. A wide range of supplementary teaching is carried on by visiting teachers and by visitors generally, who lecture on their own specialty. Classes are held in psychology, economics, literature, English composition, drama, handicraft, gymnastics, group singing, and other subjects.

The plan for student autonomy is the students' committee. Some student calls it into decision; decisions are made regarding classes, teachers, discipline, and other matters affecting them.

THE LAW GOVERNING THE TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS TO AND FROM SCHOOL

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In the attempt to improve the educational facilities available to rural children, considerable attention has been directed to the consolidation of rural schools. Consolidation means that many children have to travel greater distances to attend school than they did when they were attending the district school. Hence, the problem has arisen of furnishing transportation for the children living at some distance from the consolidated school. This article is the result of an attempt to determine the nature and the extent of the legal regulations governing such transportation.

POWERS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOL BOARD IN GENERAL

It may be said that school districts are corporations created by the legislature and that therefore their officers have only such powers as are either expressly granted by the legislature or necessarily implied from those granted.[1] It has accordingly been generally held that, in the absence of specific statutory provision, school officers cannot provide for the transportation of pupils out of public funds.[2] For example, in Illinois "the right and opportunity of equal education does not require that the children should be hauled to school any more than it would require that the directors should clothe them or furnish meals."[3] However, it has been held

[1] *Honaker* v. *Board of Education*, 42 W.Va. 170, 24 S.E. 544, 57 A.S.R. 847, 32 L.R.A. 413; *Mathews* v. *Board of Education of District No. 1 of Kalamazoo*, 127 Mich. 530, 86 N.W. 1036, 54 L.R.A. 736; *State* v. *Haworth*, 122 Ind. 462, 23 N.E. 946, 7 L.R.A. 240; *Board of Education* v. *Best*, 52 Ohio St. 138, 39 N.E. 694, 27 L.R.A. 77.

[2] *Hendrix* v. *Morris*, 191 S.W. 949, 127 Ark. 222; *State* v. *Jackson*, 168 Ind. 384, 81 N.E. 62; *Shanklin* v. *Boyd*, 146 Ky. 460, 142 S.W. 1041; *State* v. *Cruzan* (Kan.), 243 Pac. 329; *Board of Education of Houston County* v. *Hunt* (Ga.), 126 S.E. 789; *Dahl* v. *Independent School District No. 2* (S.D.), 187 N.W. 638; *Tow* v. *Dunbar Consolidated School District* (Ia.), 206 N.W. 94; *State* v. *Whetsel* (Ind.), 149 N.E. 369, 150 N.E. 766.

[3] *Mills* v. *School Directors*, 154 Ill. App. 119.

in New York that transportation of pupils may be provided at public expense under a statute providing for the "maintenance and support of a system of free common schools, wherein all children of the state may be educated."[1] Clearly the New York case is an exception to the rule. A common attitude of the courts on this issue is illustrated by the following statement made by the Kentucky Court of Appeals: "We do not hold that the legislature may not provide for the levying of a tax for this purpose; we only hold that it has not yet done so."[2]

Cases have come before the courts testing the constitutionality of statutes which provide for the use of public funds for transporting children to public schools. Such a use of funds is not a diversion to private use;[3] nor is it a diversion to a use not permitted by a constitution which provides for the expense involved in "conducting" public schools.[4] Legislative acts providing for the transportation of school children by common carriers at reduced rates have been generally held constitutional.[5] Such legislation does not show "undue or unreasonable" preference among patrons;[6] nor does it deprive certain carriers of "equal protection of the laws."[7] Neither is legislation unconstitutional which permits the board to exercise its discretion in determining when enough children live far enough from school that the district will be benefited by providing transportation,[8] or in determining whether to furnish transportation or to

[1] *People ex rel. Board of Education of Union Free School District*, 243 N.Y. 204, 153 N.E. 49.

[2] *Shanklin* v. *Boyd*, 146 Ky. 460, 142 S.W. 1041.

[3] *School District No. 3* v. *Atzenweiler*, 67 Kan. 609, 73 Pac. 927.

[4] *Bufkin* v. *Mitchell*, 63 So. 458, 106 Miss. 253, 50 L.R.A. (N.S.) 428.

[5] *Public Service Ry. Co.* v. *Board of Public Utility Com'rs.*, 81 N.J. Law 363, 80 Atl. 27; *Fitzmaurice* v. *New York, N.H. & H. Ry. Co.*, 192 Mass. 159, 78 N.E. 418, 6 L.R.A. (N.S.) 1146, 116 Am. St. Rep. 236; *Commonwealth* v. *Interstate Consolidated Street Ry. Co.*, 187 Mass. 436, 73 N.E. 530, affirmed 207 U.S. 79, 28 Sup. Ct. Rep. 26; *San Antonio Traction Co.* v. *Altgelt* (Tex.), 81 S.W. 106, affirmed 200 U.S. 304, 50 L. Ed. 491, 26 Sup. Ct. Rep. 261; *Northrop* v. *Richmond*, 105 Va. 335, 53 S.E. 962.

[6] *Public Service Ry. Co.* v. *Board of Public Utility Com'rs.*, 81 N.J. Law 363, 80 Atl. 27.

[7] *Fitzmaurice* v. *New York, N.H. & H. Ry. Co.*, 192 Mass. 159, 78 N.E. 418, 6 L.R.A. (N.S.) 1146, 116 Am. St. Rep. 236; *Commonwealth* v. *Interstate Consolidated Street Ry. Co.*, 187 Mass. 436, 73 N.E. 530, affirmed 207 U.S. 79, 28 Sup. Ct. Rep. 26.

[8] *Cross* v. *Fisher*, 177 S.W. 43, 132 Tenn. 31, Ann. Cas. 1916E, 1092.

pay the parent in lieu thereof.[1] Furthermore, a statute is not unconstitutional because it fails to stipulate a maximum amount that may be paid for transportation.[2]

In most cases where legislation has been enacted providing for the transportation of pupils, the statute gives wide discretion to school officers as to when such transportation shall be provided.[3] For example, where a statute provided that the district should make high-school subjects available within four miles of the child's home or provide transportation to a school where such subjects were available, the choice was with the board as to the course to pursue.[4] Likewise, as suggested earlier, where a statute provided either for transportation of pupils or for compensation of parents in lieu thereof, the board could choose between the two procedures.[5] Furthermore, if a board has once established a policy relative to the transportation of pupils it may, in its discretion, change that policy.[6] In some cases, however, provision for transportation becomes mandatory.[7] As an illustration, where a statute permitted the closing of schools of a certain class provided transportation to other schools was afforded the pupils of the schools closed, the closing of

[1] *Seiler* v. *Gelhar* (N.D.), 209 N.W. 376.

[2] *Bufkin* v. *Mitchell*, 63 So. 458, 106 Miss. 253, 50 L.R.A. (N.S.) 428.

[3] *Douglas* v. *Board of Education of Johnson County* (Ga.), 138 S.E. 226; *Park* v. *McKinney*, 121 Kan. 41, 245 Pac. 1021; *Gragg* v. *County Board of Education* (Ky.), 252 S.W. 137; *State* v. *Beamer* (Ohio), 141 N.E. 851; *Harkness* v. *School Board* (Kan.), 175 Pac. 386; *Dahl* v. *Independent School District No. 2* (S.D.), 187 N.W. 638; *Harris* v. *School District No. 48*, 143 N.W. 898, 32 S.D. 544, Ann. Cas. 1916A, 267; *Berry* v. *School Board of Barrington* (N.H.), 95 Atl. 952; *Carey* v. *Thompson*, 66 Vt. 655, 30 Atl. 5; *State* v. *Jackson*, 168 Ind. 384, 81 N.E. 62; *Board of Education of Freling-Huysen Township* v. *Atwood*, 65 Atl. 999, 74 N.J. Law 638; *Newcomb* v. *Inhabitants of Rockport*, 183 Mass. 74, 66 N.E. 587; *Queeny* v. *Higgins*, 136 Ia. 573, 114 N.W. 51; *Fogg* v. *Board of Education*, 76 N.H. 296, 82 Atl. 173, 37 L.R.A. (N.S.) 1110, Ann. Cas. 1912C, 758; *State* v. *Board of Education of Lykens Township* (Ohio), 132 N.E. 16; *State* v. *Miller* (Ind.), 141 N.E. 60.

[4] *State* v. *Beamer* (Ohio), 141 N.E. 851.

[5] *Park* v. *McKinney*, 121 Kan. 41, 245 Pac. 1021; *Harkness* v. *School Board* (Kan.), 175 Pac. 386.

[6] *Gragg* v. *County Board of Education* (Ky.) 252 S.W. 137.

[7] *State* v. *Lane*, 184 Ind. 523, 111 N.E. 616; *Mendenhall* v. *Slim Buttes School District* (S.D.), 196 N.W. 97; *State* v. *Mostad*, 148 N.W. 831, 28 N.D. 244, 158 N.W. 349; *Eastgate* v. *Osago School District* (N.D.), 171 N.W. 96; *Dennis* v. *Wrigley*, 141 N.W. 605, 175 Mich. 621.

such schools made transportation to other schools mandatory.[1] Similarly, if a board makes a classification as to pupils to be transported, it must transport alike all who fall within that classification.[2]

ADMINISTRATION OF TRANSPORTATION PROVISIONS

When statutory provisions for transporting pupils are administered, it becomes necessary to determine what persons are entitled to transportation. In most of the cases that have come before the courts in which a statute governed, the basis of determining whether transportation should be provided for a child was the distance of the child's home from the school.[3] In some cases the governing statute also considered the age of the pupil.[4] Furthermore, in Ohio the educational advancement of the child was considered in the statute,[5] while in North Dakota the statute permitted a consideration of the sex of the child in determining who might be transported.[6]

In construing statutory regulations relative to the transportation of pupils, however, the courts have not been disposed to broaden the provisions of the statutes. In New Hampshire, for instance, the court would not permit transportation for a child because he was physically infirm when that child lived nearer to the school than one and one-half miles, the legislature providing transportation only for children beyond that distance.[7] Similarly, under a statute providing for transportation, a lighthouse-keeper on an island could not compel transportation of his children to the mainland when access was always inconvenient and at certain seasons impossible.[8] Moreover, a statute permitting districts of a certain class to provide for trans-

[1] *Dennis* v. *Wrigley*, 141 N.W. 605, 175 Mich. 621.

[2] *State* v. *Smith* (Mo.), 196 S.W. 115.

[3] *Harris* v. *School District No. 48*, 143 N.W. 898, 32 S.D. 544, Ann. Cas. 1916A, 267; *Patton* v. *State*, 14 Ohio App. 64; *State* v. *Mostad*, 148 N.W. 831, 28 N.D. 244, 158 N.W. 349; *State* v. *Board of Education of Licking County*, 11 Ohio App. 298; *Wellston Consolidated School District* v. *Matthews*, 230 Pac. 739, 104 Okla. 185; *State* v. *Smith* (Mo.), 196 S.W. 115; *Berry* v. *School Board of Barrington* (N.H.), 95 Atl. 952.

[4] *Patterson* v. *Middle School Township*, 50 Ind. App. 460, 98 N.E. 440; *Eastgate* v. *Osago School District* (N.D.), 171 N.W. 96; *Patton* v. *State*, 14 Ohio App. 64.

[5] *Sommers* v. *Putnam County Board of Education* (Ohio), 148 N.E. 682.

[6] *State* v. *Mostad*, 148 N.W. 831, 28 N.D. 244, 158 N.W. 349.

[7] *Berry* v. *School Board of Barrington* (N.H.), 95 Atl. 952.

[8] *Newcomb* v. *Inhabitants of Rockport*, 183 Mass. 74, 66 N.E. 587.

porting pupils to and from school would not permit a district to transport pupils to a school in another district.[1] However, a child from outside a particular district who was attending school in that district as permitted by statute was entitled to transportation if his route to and from school intersected the route of the school bus at a distance from the school at which other children within the district were being transported. In this case the court did not expect the bus to go outside the district to pick up pupils, but, if a child placed himself at a point within the district in which other children were being transported, there was no reason to exclude him.[2]

It is, of course, not intended that public money shall be used in transporting pupils to any institution other than a public institution. Accordingly, the fact that two children were being transported to a public school at public expense would not permit transportation of twenty-five pupils to a private school on the same contract.[3] Furthermore, under a statute providing for transportation "to and from school," the Supreme Court of Iowa would not permit school equipment to be used to transport public-school children to motion-picture shows, picnics, athletic events, etc.[4] It may seem that some restriction is needed concerning the use of the transportation vehicles of public schools; yet perhaps the most social good would come to the district by giving the school officers discretion in such matters.

Since the basis for determining whether transportation shall be provided is usually the distance the child lives from the school, the question of determining this distance has come before the courts. The distance from the school is usually measured from the point where the child leaves the private way and enters upon a traveled public highway.[5] The courts in such cases hold that there was no legislative intent that children who are transported should be

[1] *Board of Directors* v. *Holdtoff* (Ark.), 285 S.W. 357; *State* v. *Board of Education of Licking County*, 11 Ohio App. 298.

[2] *Wellston Consolidated School District* v. *Matthews*, 230 Pac. 739, 104 Okla. 185.

[3] *State* v. *Milquet* (Wis.), 192 N.W. 392.

[4] *Schmidt* v. *Blair* (Ia.), 213 N.W. 593.

[5] *State* v. *Mostad*, 148 N.W. 831, 28 N.D. 244, 158 N.W. 349; *Easigate* v. *Osago School District* (N.D.), 171 N.W. 96; *State* v. *Hunter*, 200 S.W. 300, 198 Mo. App. 249; *State* v. *Board of Education of Lykens Township* (Ohio), 132 N.E. 16; *Commonwealth* v. *Benton Township School District* (Pa.), 120 Atl. 661; *Lyle* v. *State*, 88 N.E. 850, 172 Ind. 502.

carried from the doorsteps of their homes to the doorstep of the school[1] nor that they should have advantages superior to those of children living nearer the school and for whom transportation is therefore not provided.[2] In Wisconsin, however, the "nearest traveled highway" includes travel over a private way. There the court maintained that educational opportunity included not only the school but also the means of getting to it, that private highways were as essential in reaching school as public highways, and that distance traveled over private highways was as much distance from school as that traveled over public highways.[3] Sound as the reasoning in the Wisconsin case may seem, it is obvious that, if a school bus has to turn up the private lanes of any large proportion of the patrons of the school, the result is a large expense to the district which might be eliminated by requiring children to walk a short distance to meet the bus.

In determining the sufficiency of a conveyance to meet statutory requirements, a court in Indiana held that a buggy with side curtains was "comfortable and safe."[4] Similarly, in a sparsely settled community in Wisconsin an open buggy with one of the children driving the horse was "safe, comfortable, and convenient."[5] Moreover, under a Pennsylvania statute providing for free transportation by "electric railway, school conveyance, or other public transportation," the transportation need not necessarily be by a common carrier.[6]

CONTRACTS FOR THE TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS

If the legislature so desires, it may set up definite regulations to govern contracts for the transportation of pupils. In the absence of such regulations, however, such contracts need not be written.[7] Nevertheless, where a statute required that they must be written,

[1] *State* v. *Mostad*, 148 N.W. 831, 28 N.D. 244, 158 N.W. 349.

[2] *Lyle* v. *State*, 88 N.E. 850, 172 Ind. 502.

[3] *Pagel* v. *School District No. 1* (Wis.), 199 N.W. 67.

[4] *Greenlee* v. *Newton School Township*, 104 N.E. 610, 55 Ind. App. 630.

[5] *Andrews* v. *School District No. 1* (Wis.), 197 N.W. 813.

[6] *Commonwealth* v. *Benton Township School District* (Pa.), 120 Atl. 661.

[7] *Patterson* v. *Middle School Township*, 50 Ind. App. 460, 98 N.E. 440; *Greenlee* v. *Newton School Township*, 104 N.E. 610, 55 Ind. App. 630; *Board of Education of Houston County* v. *Hunt* (Ga.), 126 S.E. 789.

no recovery could be had on an oral contract.[1] Furthermore, where the statutory written contract of the previous year had not been renewed, there was no implied contract for transportation during the current year.[2] In Iowa, however, the auditing and approval in part of a father's claim for transportation constituted a ratification of an implied contract, and such ratification was not contrary to public policy.[3] It has also been held that transportation contracts are not invalidated because they fail to state a definite period during which transportation is to be furnished, the length of the school year being assumed.[4] Nor can liability on such contracts be avoided, after the execution of the contract, on the ground that no definite agreement was previously reached as to the amount to be paid for transportation. The recovery of a reasonable amount is permitted.[5]

Where there is no specific statute requiring public notice before contracts for the transportation of pupils are let, it has been held that no such notice is necessary.[6] Nevertheless, where such a statutory requirement existed and where bids at so much a day were required, a resolution of the board to accept at $35 a day a bid which was submitted at $175 a week did not show a meeting of the minds of the contracting parties.[7] Furthermore, where a statute required the letting of contracts for the transportation of pupils to the lowest "responsible bidder," a person was not a responsible bidder who was under twenty-one years of age and who had lost one leg and hence did not have full use of his limbs to control a transportation truck.[8] School authorities have a large measure of discretion in determining the responsibility of persons with whom they contract for transporting pupils.[9] Thus, the Supreme Court of Michigan permitted a school board to cancel a contract with a father for the transportation

[1] *Schaut* v. *Joint School District* (Wis.), 210 N.W. 270.

[2] *Johnson* v. *Unorganized School District* (Minn.), 198 N.W. 463.

[3] *Woods* v. *Independent School District of Oto* (Ia.), 169 N.W. 108.

[4] *Crane* v. *School District No. 14* (Ore.), 188 Pac. 712.

[5] *Greenlee* v. *Newton School Township*, 104 N.E. 610, 55 Ind. App. 630.

[6] *Patterson* v. *Middle School Township*, 50 Ind. App. 460, 98 N.E. 440.

[7] *Lucier* v. *Town of Norfolk* (Conn.), 122 Atl. 711.

[8] *Bright* v. *Ball* (Miss.), 103 So. 236.

[9] *Cooper* v. *Townsend* (Miss.), 108 So. 273.

of his children where neither the father nor any of the children had a license to operate a motor vehicle on the public highway.[1] In Mississippi, however, where the statute did not require that the contractor personally drive the conveyance, the supreme court would not invalidate a contract because the conveyance was driven by a minor.[2] Nevertheless, contracts for the transportation of pupils in which a school director or trustee is personally interested are void,[3] but the fact that contracts were let to the sons of two of the directors did not of itself invalidate the contracts.[4]

The issue has also been before the courts as to whether the district is liable on a transportation contract for the period that school may be closed by order of the board of health. The courts are divided on the question. In Oregon the closing of a school by such an order was closing it by operation of law, and hence a contract for transporting pupils was not suspended.[5] Likewise, in Ohio, when school was closed by the board of health, there was no deduction from the amount to be paid on such a contract.[6] The supreme court reasoned that transportation contracts were analogous to teachers' contracts and that it had been generally held that teachers could draw their salaries for periods when school was closed.

> In this case the plaintiff in error necessarily was subject to the daily direction and order of the board of education and could not make any engagement or undertake any service which would interfere with his readiness to resume the active discharge of the duties imposed. During all such period, therefore, upon each school day, his time and service and the service of his team, which he must necessarily provide and constantly maintain, continued subject to the board of education; and his employment, in so far at least as it prevented his engagement in other occupation or undertaking inconsistent with his duties under his contract, was continuous throughout all the period in question.[7]

[1] *Campbell* v. *School District No. 2* (Mich.), 213 N.W. 704.

[2] *Dear* v. *Bullock* (Miss.), 107 So. 197.

[3] *Directors of School District* v. *Libby* (Wash.), 237 Pac. 505; *Keenon* v. *Adams* (Ky.), 196 S.W. 173.

[4] *Cunningham* v. *Union High School District* (Wash.), 228 Pac. 855.

[5] *Crane* v. *School District No. 14* (Ore.), 188 Pac. 712.

[6] *Cashdollar* v. *Board of Education*, 12 Ohio App. 298; *Montgomery* v. *Board of Education of Liberty Township* (Ohio), 131 N.E. 497.

[7] *Montgomery* v. *Board of Education of Liberty Township* (Ohio), 131 N.E. 497.

The Supreme Court of North Dakota, however, maintained that contracts for the transportation of pupils were not so far analogous to teachers' contracts as to warrant compensation when the schools were closed on account of an epidemic of influenza.

> This contract is generally entered into between the district and someone within it. Its performance involved little or no preliminary preparation. The driver is not required to furnish the bus or other vehicle of conveyance. Performance does not require the whole time of the driver, and, while personal performance is contracted for, it clearly appears from the evidence in this case that the school district readily paid for the service though the work of driving was delegated to suit the convenience of the driver. . . . . We think it quite clear that the holding in readiness required of the driver during a period of prolonged suspension involved so little inconvenience on his part that it cannot be reasonably said to be the intention of the contracting parties that he should be paid for such period. In these circumstances the ordinary rule applicable to personal-service contracts applies. They are subject to the implied conditions, on the one side, of ability to perform and, on the other, of ability to receive performance.[1]

In view of the difference in preparation required of a teacher and of a person transporting pupils, the difference in time required in fulfilling the contracts, and the difference in inconvenience involved in holding one's self in readiness to perform service, it would seem reasonable to give the two kinds of contracts somewhat different consideration.

PARENTS AND TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS

The statutes in some states provide for appeal to the county superintendent by a parent who is not satisfied with the provision for transportation made by the school directors or trustees. In Iowa[2] and in Indiana[3] it has been held that the court would not interfere with the discretion of the superintendent in the matter. In a later Indiana case, however, governed by practically the same statutory provision, it was held that appeal to the county superintendent was not the only remedy available to a parent when a trustee failed to provide transportation. The parent could also bring

[1] *Sandry* v. *Brooklyn School District No. 78* (N.D.), 182 N.W. 689.

[2] *Queeny* v. *Higgins*, 136 Ia. 573, 114 N.W. 51.

[3] *State* v. *Schmetzer*, 156 Ind. 528, 60 N.E. 269; *Lyle* v. *State*, 88 N.E. 850, 172 Ind. 502.

suit against the trustee's bond.[1] Similarly, in Mississippi, a patron of the school who had children entitled to transportation might bring suit to cancel an illegal transportation contract and to require the proper contract to be let.[2] Moreover, where the transportation was not provided according to statute and it was shown that the distance from school was too great to expect a child to walk, the parents were not liable for violating the compulsory-attendance law.[3]

Some states also have statutory provisions whereby parents may be compensated for transporting their children to school if transportation is not furnished them. In a case of this kind it was held that the statutory procedure must be strictly followed in an attempt to get transportation provided for the children in order to entitle a parent to recover.[4] In North Dakota, however, where the board did not furnish transportation, compensation of the parent was mandatory.[5] In Wisconsin a provision for compensating parents provided they transport their children to school five months during the year did not require 100 per cent consecutive attendance during a period of five months.[6] Nevertheless, the total period of attendance must be at least one hundred days.[7] However, violation of a compulsory-attendance law requiring attendance for six months did not prevent recovery for transportation for a period of five months under the law mentioned; the two laws were entirely separate.[8] Furthermore, where a statute stipulated a rate per day to be allowed a parent for transporting his children to and from school, such statute was held to contemplate the payment of that rate per child even though several children from the same family were transported.[9] However, in the absence of specific statutory provision, a parent

[1] *State* v. *Lane*, 184 Ind. 523, 111 N.E. 616.

[2] *Bright* v. *Ball* (Miss.), 103 So. 236.

[3] *State* v. *Hall*, 74 N.H. 61, 64 Atl. 1102.

[4] *Batavia Village Board of Education* v. *Clermont County Board of Education*, 19 Ohio App. 18.

[5] *Eastgate* v. *Osago School District* (N.D.), 171 N.W. 96.

[6] *Andrews* v. *School District No. 1* (Wis.), 197 N.W. 813.

[7] *Standingwater* v. *School District No. 2* (Wis.), 197 N.W. 928.

[8] *Andrews* v. *School District No. 1* (Wis.), 197 N.W. 813.

[9] *Waits* v. *Kelly*, 236 Pac. 827, 118 Kan. 751.

could not recover damages for injury to a child during transportation.[1]

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, it may be said that courts will not permit transportation of pupils at public expense without some specific statutory regulation providing for it. New York courts, however, do not follow this rule. It should also be noted that no case was found in which the courts did not uphold the constitutionality of an act providing for the transportation of pupils to and from a public school. Furthermore, statutes in general grant local school officers wide discretion as to when and how transportation shall be provided, and courts are slow to rule that the acts of such officers constitute an abuse of that discretion.

With regard to some of the more specific principles laid down by the courts, it should be said that the distance a child lives from the school is generally the basis of determining when transportation shall be provided although other factors have been considered. This distance is usually measured from the point where the child leaves a private way and enters upon the nearest traveled public highway. Furthermore, unless it is specifically required by statute, contracts for transporting pupils need not be in writing. Moreover, school boards have been held liable on transportation contracts during a period when the school was closed by order of the board of health, the court holding such contracts to be analogous to teachers' contracts. However, a better ruling makes some distinction between the two kinds of contracts. Courts have also recognized the rights of parents in the enforcement of statutory provisions for transportation, and they have been rather favorable to the parent in construing statutes which permit the district to compensate parents for transporting their children to school. Similarly, statutes setting up requirements as to the adequacy of the transportation provided have been liberally construed.

[1] *Harris* v. *Salem School District*, 57 Atl. 332, 72 N.H. 424.

SUGGESTIONS FOR RESEARCH ON THE TYPOGRAPHY OF SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

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Persons whose work is concerned with the selection of appropriate type for textbooks realize that all research in this field has been largely inconclusive. This is unfortunate since there is a real demand for reliable information on the subject. School boards have shown a disposition to try to set up standards, and in at least one case (New York City) certain standards of typography have been adopted. Publishers would gladly comply with authoritative recommendations if any were at hand.

Since much research work has already been done on this subject and more is contemplated, it seems advisable to discuss certain facts which have not received sufficient attention in the past. Apparently the research workers have often been handicapped by a limited knowledge of typography, which rendered their results almost meaningless even when there were results to report. It is hoped that the following brief statements may clarify at least the terminology of the subject.

THE POINT SYSTEM

The expression "eighteen-point type" means that the capital letters are eighteen seventy-seconds of an inch high. It has only a general bearing on the size of the lower-case (small) letters, and for that reason the size of type is not fully described by the point system. A lower-case letter of one style or face in eighteen-point type may be almost as small to the eye as the same letter of some other face in twelve-point type. Therefore, it would seem necessary to carry out experiments on type size with one specified face.

One of the most useful faces for primary books was cut before the point system was adopted and therefore cannot be accurately described in points.

The layman does not have at hand ready means for determining

the size of type in millimeters. It is not easy to measure to a tenth of a millimeter. Until a better way is devised, type should be described by giving the size and the face; for example, twelve-point Caslon, Old Style # 337.

FACES

There are hundreds of type faces, but only a few general classes need be considered.

1. There is the style generally used in books for adults—Century, Caslon, etc. The faces vary but little in general appearance. The characteristics that need to be considered are (*a*) the extent to which the face is expanded and (*b*) the actual size of the lower-case letters.

2. There is the style in which the lines of the letters are of equal width, similar to Copperplate Gothic. The general effect is much blacker than in the case of the faces described in the preceding paragraph. Faces of this style have been used lately in primary books. There is no information as to whether the use of these faces is an advantage at the time or as to whether the subsequent change to book style causes difficulty.

3. There are the "display" faces in which the usual forms of the letters have been modified to make them unusual.

LEADING

The space between lines of type is called "leading." There is no special term for the amount of space between words. The two have a definite relation to each other. Type which has wide spaces between the words needs to have more space between the lines to keep it from seeming to "fall apart." It is obvious that, if the words are widely spaced and the lines are not sufficiently spaced, the appearance will be a page of columns of words rather than lines of words. Therefore, leading must be specified in terms of the size of type, the face of type, and the extra space between the words if any is used. The statement that for first-grade books the type should be leaded ——— points does not mean anything by itself.

LINE LENGTH

In the same way, line length must be considered in relation to the size of type. The bare statement that a line of type should not be more than ninety millimeters in length has been widely accepted

as a fact. It must be evident, however, that in type the size of newspaper type, this length would be uncomfortably long, while in seventy-two-point type it would be ridiculously short. The optimum length of line for each size of type should be determined.

EXPANDED FACES

There has been a general feeling that young children should have large expanded type when they begin to read. The writer believes that the eye-movement studies made by Judd, Buswell, and others indicate that horizontally condensed type is preferable to expanded type. In the case of type of a given size, it must be true that more symbols are visible at each eye-fixation with horizontally condensed type than with expanded type. It is easy to see from the eye-movement photographs that only one or two letters would be included in a single span of recognition if greatly expanded type were used.

An adequate measure of this quality of type (horizontally condensed or expanded) is given by the space occupied by the lower-case alphabet. For instance, in twelve-point No. 8 Modern Roman, the lower-case alphabet occupies two and one-eighth inches, or twelve picas and eight points, or fifty-four millimeters.

It seems obvious that this quality needs to be taken into consideration in any research which attempts to specify the best type for certain purposes.

MARGINS AND PARAGRAPH INDENTION

It is the practice of the book-making industry to place the type page in an offset position to the upper inside corner of the page. This makes the top margin the narrowest and the inside margin almost the same, with the most space at the outside and the lower edges. When the book is bound, especially if it is Singer-sewed, the inside margin almost disappears.

It would seem advisable to abandon this practice in the case of books for young children and to place the type near the outside edge of the page so that the type will be on the part of the page that lies fairly flat. It cannot be easy to read around a curved sheet.

With regard to evenness of length of line, again the eye-movement studies seem to indicate clearly that lines of a single length

would be desirable. Perhaps the element of desirable training would here outweigh other considerations.

The question of paragraph indention must be considered in relation to the question of broken sentences; that is, sentences that are more than one line in length. First reading books have many sentences about one line in length. It is obvious that in such cases the use of hanging paragraphs will result in fewer broken sentences.

PAPER

Investigators have reported that a pure white sheet with black ink produces the greatest legibility. In spite of this fact, several publishers use a "natural" tinted paper in the belief that it is "easier on the eyes" of the children. This seems to be a case where hearsay evidence outweighs actual results.

One investigator has attempted to report the minimum thickness of paper that should be used. From the standpoint of hygiene, thickness could only effect opacity, and opacity is not determined by thickness alone. It would seem necessary to specify the degree of opacity that is desirable. In almost all schoolbooks now in use the type shows through the reverse side of the sheet, at least to some extent.

THE EFFECT OF SOILED PAGES

It might be well to consider the effect of certain other factors which may prove to be important.

The book the child actually reads from, in the first grade particularly, is usually somewhat soiled. Often finger marks have turned the entire page to a dull gray. Sometimes the paper has been creased. These conditions are common under a system of free textbooks. It is considered good economy to continue to rebind such books until they are no longer usable. It is possible that it would be truer economy to buy temporary, less expensive bindings and to throw the books away when they become badly soiled.

School officials are willing to pay for attractive books. However, the second or the sixth child to use a book may be using a very unattractive book because of the accumulated dirt.[1]

[1] On a recent tour of approximately thirty mid-western cities, the writer found only two where facilities for washing the hands were provided for the elementary-school children.

HAND-PRINTING OUTFITS, SEAT WORK, ETC.

In addition to the type in books, the child is exposed to type in several other forms. Many children begin to read from hand-printed charts. The size and the shape of the letters have never been specified for any given distance. It would appear that a face similar to the book face should be used. It would be useful to know that for children seated at a maximum of eight feet from a chart type not less than ——— inches high should be used, etc.

SUMMARY

It is safe to predict that the results of any investigation in this field will be widely quoted and perhaps generally accepted. It is therefore important to take all factors into consideration and to express the results in a form that cannot be misinterpreted.

ANALYSIS OF DIFFICULTIES IN DECIMALS

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In general, there are three types of diagnostic procedures that are being used to determine the abilities of pupils in arithmetic. The first of these may be called the "survey" procedure. The teacher who follows this procedure is concerned with such factors as the arithmetic age of the pupil, his relative ability as measured by a general test in arithmetic, and his placement in a grade. The second diagnostic procedure may be called the "analytical" method. Here the teacher is concerned with the more specific problem of determining the types of examples with which the pupil has difficulty. This may be accomplished by giving the pupil a diagnostic test containing the various types of examples in such a process as the addition of decimals for the purpose of determining the specific types of examples with which the pupil has difficulty. The third diagnostic procedure may be called the "psychological" method. This procedure is concerned with the question of *why* a pupil fails to work any given example correctly. In using this method, the teacher attempts to discover the particular element in the process that is causing difficulty or to discover whether the errors are due to faulty methods of work. The teacher uses either of two methods in diagnosing the pupil difficulties: (1) an analysis of the pupil's written work, by which it is possible in many cases to discover the reasons for the errors; (2) an individual examination of the pupil in which the pupil is asked to work aloud the examples with which he has difficulty. The first method may be used by the teacher to discover obvious causes of errors in the work of classes or individuals. The second method should be used when pupils are found whose papers reveal peculiar methods of work and unusual types of errors.

Numerous tests are now available which assist in making general surveys of pupil difficulties in the fundamental operations. A few tests in fractions and decimals have also been developed for this pur-

pose. Relatively little has been done to develop tests which make it possible to discover the specific types of examples in such a process as the addition of decimals with which pupils have difficulty. Apparently, the assumption has been that the pupil's ability to work examples in the addition of decimals is measured with a sufficient degree of accuracy by testing the pupil's ability to work a few typical examples in the particular process. This procedure does not recognize the existence of a variety of types of examples each of which requires a specific knowledge of detailed methods of work. For example, the ability to add .5 and .5 is quite different from the ability to add 1.5 and .15. This variety of types of examples in the different processes has been recognized in the construction of such tests as that of Buswell and John[1] in the fundamentals and those of the writer[2] in the fundamentals, fractions, and decimals.

The use of the latter types of tests in making diagnoses by the psychological method makes it possible to determine not only the types of examples with which a pupil has difficulty but also the reasons for the errors made on each type. This article contains the results of a study of the errors made by pupils in Grades VI, VII, and VIII in analytical tests on the four processes in decimals. The basis of the analysis was a study of the written work of more than three hundred pupils in these grades in four different schools in Minneapolis. The investigation was concerned with the question of the types of examples found most difficult and with the causes of the errors made. It involved, therefore, the analytical method of diagnosis as well as the psychological method.

The tests used were as follows: Part I consists of examples in reading, writing, and converting decimals and in comprehending the value of decimals.

PART I

1. Below are numbers written as words. Write each in decimal form.
   a) Five tenths
   b) Four hundredths

[1] G. T. Buswell with the co-operation of Lenore John, *Diagnostic Studies in Arithmetic*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 30. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1926. Pp. xiv+212.

[2] L. J. Brueckner, *Diagnostic Test in Whole Numbers*, Manual, pp. 22, 1926. *Diagnostic Test in Fractions*, Manual, pp. 34, 1926. *Diagnostic Test in Decimals*, Manual, pp. 10 (mimeographed), 1928. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Educational Test Bureau.

c) Sixteen hundredths
d) Three thousandths
e) Forty-six thousandths
f) One hundred seven thousandths
g) Forty-nine and eighty-four hundredths

2. Write the numbers below as words.
a) .65
b) 1.4
c) 3.75
d) .146
e) 1.09
f) 20.056

3. Arrange the following numbers in the order of their size. Write the number of greatest value first.
a) 23.3
b) 2.33
c) 233.0
d) 2.303
e) 200.33

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

4. Change to decimals.
a) $\frac{3}{5}$=
b) $\frac{3}{8}$=

5. Change to fractions.
a) .75=
b) .12$\frac{1}{2}$=

Part II

Addition

Can you find the following sums correctly?

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
.4	.3	.16	.28	.02
.1	.5	.25	.43	.03
.3	.8	.37	.95	.04

6.	7.	8.	9.
.05	1.06	1.75	2.75
.09	2.08	2.125	4
.08	3.04	3.8	16.375

10. Find the sum of 9.65+8.375+6.4

11. Find the sum of .8+3+.125

12. .25+$\frac{1}{4}$=

Work 10 here

Work 11 here

Subtraction

Can you do these examples in subtraction correctly?

1. .8 .3	2. .5 .5	3. .16 .04	4. .38 .15	5. .43 .41
6. .375 .269	7. .7 .35	8. .9 .275	9. .4 .375	10. .6 .004
11. 9.6 3.4	12. 18.5 4.6	13. 27.08 15.17	14. 9.3 6.25	15. 18.2 1.625

Work 16 here

Work 17 here

16. Subtract 3.825 from 20

17. Subtract .5 from .75

Multiplication

Can you do these examples in multiplication correctly?

1. 4×.2=	2. 4×.02=	3. 4×.002=
4. 5×.3=	5. 6×.04=	6. 7×.008=
7. 8×.5=	8. 6×.05=	9. 4×.005=

10. 2.6 4	11. 3.5 8	12. 3.28 4	13. 4.647 5
14. 85 .4	15. 20 .6	16. 32 1.4	17. 2.5 48

18. .4×.2=	19. .5×.03=	20. .8×.25=

21. 7.8 6.4	22. 6.5 4.8	23. 18.4 .26	24. 8.04 .03

25. 10×8.5=	26. 10×.96=	27. 100×.14=
28. 100×8.5=	29. 100×8.65=	30. 200×9.4=
31. $\frac{3}{8}$ of 6.4=	32. .08×25×$\frac{1}{2}$=	

Division

Can you work all these examples in division?

1. $4\overline{)8.4}$	2. $3\overline{)7.47}$	3. $8\overline{)16.896}$
4. $2\overline{).8}$	5. $4\overline{).76}$	6. $6\overline{).972}$
7. $4\overline{).12}$	8. $6\overline{).042}$	9. $24\overline{)1.2}$
10. $8\overline{)4}$	11. $8\overline{)6}$	12. $25\overline{)2}$
13. $25\overline{)64}$	14. $33\overline{)87}$	15. $25\overline{)8.725}$
16. $.3\overline{)3.6}$	17. $3\overline{)18.63}$	18. $4\overline{)1.2}$
19. $.3\overline{)6}$	20. $.2\overline{)10}$	21. $.4\overline{)3}$
22. $.7\overline{)4}$	23. $.11\overline{)1.21}$	24. $.11\overline{)1.342}$
25. $.11\overline{)3.3}$	26. $.12\overline{)6}$	27. $.12\overline{)9}$
28. $1.25\overline{)6.75}$	29. $6.48\overline{)7.128}$	30. $.834\overline{)91.74}$

After the tests had been given to the pupils, the first step was to check the examples that were incorrect and to determine the causes of the errors by an examination of the written work of the pupils. It should be pointed out that the computations in the tests were kept as simple as possible so that errors due to faulty handling of decimals would be revealed rather than errors due to difficult computation. The reasons for the errors were classified according to type.

The total number of different kinds of errors isolated was 114, the largest variety occurring in Grade VIII. The kinds of errors were more numerous in multiplication and division than in addition and subtraction. They were distributed as follows: general difficulties in reading, writing, and conversion, 33; difficulties in addition, 15; difficulties in subtraction, 14; difficulties in multiplication, 26; and difficulties in division, 26.

There was no evidence that errors are at all typical by grades. Therefore, in the tables the errors for all grades are combined. The tables contain the classification of a total of 8,785 errors. The analysis of the errors is obvious from the statements of the errors given in the tables.

Table I shows the errors that were found in the first part of the tests, which was concerned with the reading, writing, and conversion of decimals and with the comprehension of the value of decimals. Tables II, III, IV, and V show the types of errors in the four processes in decimals.

TABLE I

Difficulties in Reading, Writing, and Converting Decimals

	Frequency
1. Lack of comprehension of numerical values of decimals	519
2. Difficulties in expressing decimal numbers in words:	
a) Errors in spelling	451
b) Omission of essential words	15
c) Inability to write decimal fractions in words	15
3. Difficulties in reading and writing decimals:	
a) Inability to write fractions as decimals	95
b) Misplacing of decimal point	88
c) Inability to express mixed numbers in decimals	55
d) Zero difficulties:	
(1) Placing of extra zero in answer	26
(2) Misplacing of zero	22
e) Writing decimals as part common fractions and part decimal fractions	38
4. Difficulties in writing decimals as common fractions:	
a) Inability to reduce fractions to lowest terms	58
b) Inability to write decimals as common fractions	44
5. Lack of fundamental knowledge	261
6. Other difficulties:	
a) Mathematical	0
b) Non-mathematical:	
(1) No attempt	128
(2) Carelessness in reading	120
(3) Failure to write out completely	77
(4) Failure to follow directions	64
(5) Work incomplete	22
7. Miscellaneous	77
Total	2,175

TABLE II

Difficulties in the Addition of Decimals

	Frequency
1. Difficulties basic to any addition:	
a) Errors in number combinations	128
b) Difficulties in carrying	31
2. Difficulties peculiar to decimal situations:	
a) Misplacing of decimal point	275
b) Difficulties in adding common fractions and decimals:	
(1) Inability to add	23
(2) Fractions added to decimals ($.4+\frac{1}{2}=.4\frac{1}{2}$)	20
c) Misplacing of whole number	34
d) Omission of decimal point	3
3. Other difficulties:	
a) Mathematical (miscellaneous)	5
b) Non-mathematical:	
(1) No attempt	36
(2) Failure to follow directions	14
(3) Work incomplete	7
(4) Carelessness	4
Total	580

TABLE III

Difficulties in the Subtraction of Decimals

	Frequency
1. Difficulties basic to any subtraction:	
a) Difficulties in borrowing	221
b) Errors in subtraction	50
c) Subtraction confused with addition	45
d) Zero difficulties	15
e) Subtrahend and minuend reversed	12
2. Difficulties peculiar to decimal situations:	
a) Misplacing of decimal number in subtrahend	74
b) Omission of decimal point	17
c) Misplacing of decimal point	8
3. Other difficulties:	
a) Mathematical (miscellaneous)	5
b) Non-mathematical:	
(1) No attempt	11
(2) Work incomplete	4
(3) Carelessness	3
Total	465

TABLE IV

Difficulties in the Multiplication of Decimals

	Frequency
1. Difficulties basic to any multiplication:	
a) Errors in multiplication	365
b) Difficulties in carrying	38
c) Added instead of multiplying	36
d) Errors in addition	34
e) Multiplier or multiplicand copied as answer	17
f) Inability to multiply by zero	11
2. Difficulties peculiar to decimal situations:	
a) Placement of decimal point:	
(1) Misplacing of decimal point	631
(2) Omission of decimal point	119
b) Zero difficulties:	
(1) Failure to prefix zero	87
(2) Prefixing of unnecessary zero	38
(3) Annexing of unnecessary zero	19
(4) Failure to annex zero	10
c) Inability to express common fractions as decimals:	
(1) Inability to multiply decimals and fractions	62
(2) Answers written in fraction form	52
d) Multiplied whole numbers and added decimals	13
e) Multiplied whole numbers and decimals separately	2
3. Other difficulties:	
a) Mathematical:	
(1) Misplacing of zero	10
(2) Miscellaneous	20
b) Non-mathematical:	
(1) No attempt	168
(2) Unknown	52
(3) Work incomplete	24
(4) Carelessness	6
Total	1,814

TABLE V

DIFFICULTIES IN THE DIVISION OF DECIMALS

	Frequency
1. Difficulties basic to any division:	
a) Errors in division	376
b) Difficulties with trial divisor	99
c) Misplacing of remainder	83
d) Errors in multiplication	47
e) Errors in subtraction	11
2. Difficulties peculiar to decimal situations:	
a) Placement of decimal point:	
(1) Misplacing of decimal point	1,436
(2) Omission of decimal point	356
(3) Decimal point used when unnecessary	83
b) Zero difficulties:	
(1) Failure to prefix zero in quotient	163
(2) Failure to annex zero to dividend	143
(3) Failure to annex zero to quotient	106
(4) Placing of extra zeros in quotient	85
(5) Prefixing of unnecessary zeros with resulting wrong placement of decimal point	34
(6) Misplacing of zero in quotient	19
c) Failure to reduce remainder to decimal	172
3. Other difficulties:	
a) Mathematical:	
(1) Failure to know correct procedure	89
(2) Miscellaneous	39
b) Non-mathematical:	
(1) Work incomplete	202
(2) No attempt	198
(3) Carelessness	10
Total	3,751

CONCLUSIONS

1. Many pupils do not have adequate concepts of the numerical values of decimals, as can be seen in Table I from the 519 errors due to this difficulty. Only two other types of errors occurred as frequently, namely, misplacing the decimal point in division and misplacing the decimal point in multiplication.

2. Many errors were due to the misspelling of the decimal written in word form; for example, "hundreds" for "hundredths."

3. Failure to place the decimal point correctly was the greatest

cause of errors in addition, .3+.5+.8=.16 being the most common type.

4. The number of errors in addition due to inaccuracy was about half as great as the number of errors due to the misplacing of the decimal point.

5. The greatest difficulties in subtraction were in borrowing and in the placement of the decimal number in the subtrahend. There were few errors due to inaccuracy.

6. The major difficulty in the multiplication of decimals was the misplacing of the decimal point or its complete omission.

7. There were many errors due to inaccuracy in multiplication.

8. The major causes of errors in division were the misplacing of the decimal point, faulty placement of zeros, omission of the decimal point, and inaccuracy.

9. The types of examples in each of the four processes in decimals worked incorrectly most frequently are as follows:

ADDITION

1. 2.75
   4
   16.375

2. Find the sum of .8+3+.125

3. .28
   .43
   .95

4. .25+$\frac{1}{4}$=

5. .3
   .5
   .8

SUBTRACTION

1. 18.2
   1.625

2. .4
   .375

3. .6
   .004

4. Subtract 3.825 from 20

5. Subtract .5 from .75

MULTIPLICATION

1. 4.647
   5

2. .5×.03=

3. 200×9.4=

4. $\frac{3}{8}$ of 6.4=

5. .08×25×$\frac{1}{2}$=

DIVISION

1. $33\overline{)87}$

2. $.4\overline{)3}$

3. $.12\overline{)9}$

4. $.3\overline{)6}$

5. $.2\overline{)10}$

6. $.7\overline{)4}$

RECURRING WORDS AND THEIR RELATION TO DIFFICULTIES IN COMPREHENSION

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A survey of the reading material for the primary grades published in the last decade reveals remarkable changes in the materials selected for children's reading. Suitability of content is being demanded together with adequacy of vocabulary. The primary readers for which a popular market is assured, bookmen declare, are those which offer in addition to suitable content frequency of repeated words and vocabularies that correspond closely with the Thorndike word list.

It would seem, then, that, if several series of readers having suitable content and vocabularies that check with the Thorndike word list were selected, each series containing frequent repetition of words, children trained to read in one series should experience little or no difficulty in reading in any of the series. Primary teachers testify, however, to the difficulties pupils encounter in their first attempts to master the material in each new series. Two explanations for these difficulties are usually offered. First, the children must adjust themselves to entirely different fields of interest, and, second, there is more or less variation in the vocabularies of the different series, which makes comprehension difficult. By "variation" teachers usually mean a vocabulary that contains many new words. Seldom, if ever, does the teacher challenge repeated words but rather determines their suitability by the ease and speed with which the children recognize the forms and pronounce the words. It is assumed that the more frequently a word recurs, the more likely are the children to comprehend its meaning. Upon this supposition alone many teachers base their choice of readers. That there may be real obstacles to comprehension in recurring words was first brought to the attention of the writer in a dramatic manner.

Three years ago the writer was supervising the work of a cadet

teacher in a low fourth grade in one of the foreign districts of a city in New Jersey. The teacher was in charge of the silent-reading class. The pupils in the group were earnestly reading "The Bell of Atri." When they had finished and had given various signs of having enjoyed the story, the teacher asked, "What kind of man do you think the duke was?" Tony's hand was the first one up. Tony was the "thinker" of the class—the product of one year's schooling in America.

Tony's answer, "The dook—he was lee-tul man an' kin' to ever' bodee," seemed to satisfy the group.

"Read for us, Tony, the sentence that tells you that the duke was a little man," urged the teacher.

The boy's stubby finger found the line, and he read triumphantly, "The duke was a just man and loved to make his people happy."

"But which word says that he was a 'little' man?"

Quickly Tony's finger pointed to "just."

"But 'just' does not mean 'little,' Tony," the teacher said. "Who can tell him what is meant by a 'just man'?" Everyone was willing to hazard a guess, but the closest approach to the meaning was "good."

Finally, a little son of Erin, not a member of the reading group, called out, "Oh, I know, teacher. It means de dook was on de square." Instantly every child recognized the meaning.

By this time Tony was atremble with fury at the teacher's tentative acceptance of the definition, and, turning to her, he shrieked, "Why, den, you lie to me? You tell me 'just' means 'lee-tul.' " At this point the boy was hastily and none too gently conducted by the class teacher to the adjoining cloakroom, and the incident was closed so far as the class was concerned.

That evening the two teachers and the writer attempted to analyze the situation so as to understand the reason for Tony's serious accusation. After much questioning on the part of the writer and careful thinking on the part of the cadet teacher, the cadet teacher remembered that several weeks previously Tony had had a struggle to comprehend the meaning of "just" in the sentence "The boy had just gone." The teacher had explained that it meant that the boy had been gone a "little" while. In her attempt to make it

understandable, she had emphasized "little" until Tony had at last seemed to grasp the idea. Small wonder, then, that the boy's faith in teachers was upset when the meaning of a word so laboriously taught him on one occasion was wrong when next he met that word.

During the rest of the term the writer required the student teachers to be on the alert for recurring words the meanings of which differed. They carefully tested their pupils to discover the extent to which such recurrences affected comprehension. It was found that in classes composed of children whose background was good there was need for only a relatively small amount of special attention to recurring words. On the other hand, in classes made up of the less fortunate, the recurring words proved to be real stumbling-blocks. This problem is an important one in primary reading. How serious a handicap it may be to comprehension the writer has attempted to discover through an analysis of the vocabularies of five sets of primary readers and the isolation of all words that recur with different meanings.

The readers selected for the investigation are fairly representative of current and recent books. The particular combination of readers was chosen because (1) they are being used together in the primary grades of several progressive schools; (2) their content is varied; (3) they are all reputed to have been based on the latest scientific data; (4) they represent publications of the last ten years; and (5) no two sets are sponsored by the same publisher. Thus, an effort was made to base the study on thoroughly representative material in the field of reading. The following readers were analyzed, the numbers in parentheses indicating the dates of publication.

1. *The Winston Readers* (1918):
   Primer
   First Reader
   Second Reader
2. *The Elson Readers* (1920):
   Primer
   Book One
   Book Two
3. *The Boys' and Girls' Readers* (1923):
   Primer
   First Reader
   Second Reader

4. *The Pathway to Reading* (1925):
   Primer
   First Reader
   Second Reader
5. *The Child's Own Way Series* (1926):
   Primer
   First Reader

For each book a complete list was made of the recurring words the meanings of which differ. With the assistance of several student teachers, the writer made an investigation on a very limited scale in the first and second grades of two schools in New Jersey. Each class was made up of a mixed group so far as intelligence was concerned, but the members of each group came from the same district and had practically the same experiential background. A first grade and a second grade were chosen in the foreign district and a first grade and a second grade in the better residential district.

To secure objective evidence, the writer and the practice teachers together planned reading exercises dealing with recurring words[1] the meanings of which differed. These were used to test the children's understanding of what they read. A sampling of the exercises used and their results will illustrate the deficiencies in comprehension that were discovered. In one exercise the children were asked to draw a picture illustrating the meaning of each of a group of sentences. Examples of the sentences follow:

1. A boy ran down the street with a cart.
2. He pulled up the pail with a rope.
3. In the circus there was a monkey with a yellow coat.

The drawings for the first two sentences showed that all the children had probably comprehended both uses of "with," but the drawings for the third sentence gave evidence of hazy thinking. Some children drew a monkey dragging a coat by the collar, the sleeve, or the tail; several merely drew a monkey and a coat; but all who had ever seen a monkey dressed or had seen pictures of one correctly interpreted the meaning of "with" and placed the coat on the monkey. The experience of some of the children had not been extended sufficiently for them to comprehend the significance of the sentence; nor apparently had the word "with" meaning "dressed

[1] "Recurring words" means "words of identical form."

in" been taught to fit such an experience. Those who had understood the sentence had been able, however, through the association of ideas, to get the meaning of the preposition from the context.

In an oral exercise in which the children were asked to explain the sentence "The dog chased the boy," no child in any of the classes seemed to experience difficulty. When they were asked, however, to explain "The boy chased down the street," neither the foreign children in either grade nor the first-grade children in the American group could interpret it. A few second-grade children in the American group, however, understood the term.

A first-grade teacher reported on another occasion that, after the children had done several exercises in which they were asked to draw various pictures, they were given a silent-reading flash-card exercise in "things to do." The last card read, "Draw the red table across the room." Instantly there was confusion. Several children started toward the table to pull it from one side of the room to the other; the others took out paper and pencil and began to make drawings of the red table that was at the far side of the room. The pictures in eight cases out of ten showed the table far to the right. There were thus two misinterpretations, one in the meaning of the word "draw" and the other in the meaning of the word "across."

On preparing for another exercise, the writer asked a little boy, "Did you 'get' the papers for your drawing?" He answered, "No, Billy 'got' them for me." In that case he evidently failed to differentiate between "get" meaning "to receive" and "get" meaning "to procure." A tremendous amount of confused thinking might well arise, then, when in one reader the children are expected to differentiate among "got home," "got tired," "got to thinking," "got ready," "got" meaning "procured," and "got" meaning "received."

The Boys' and Girls' Second Reader speaks of the "mouth of a river." One student teacher reported that she had not thought to inquire whether the children understood the term until one little boy said, with a grin, "If a river has a mouth, I suppose it can eat boys up." She realized then that what had been said half jokingly by one child might be a serious interpretation by another child. Inquiry revealed the fact that not one child in the room really comprehended the meaning of the expression "mouth of a river."

In the same reader "next" proved to be a stumbling-block to a few. All the children comprehended "next" when it meant "beside" or "immediately succeeding," but, when the little girl loved her doll best "next" to her mother and father, there was evidence of misinterpretation. Several children pictured the doll sitting "between" mother and father, where, they reasoned, the little girl loved to put it.

The teacher of the second-grade foreign group reported that, when she asked what it means "to play in the open," she received the following answers: "to play in a big box with the cover off," "to play in a vacant lot," and "to play before you are dressed in the morning." The same confusion was evident in the exercises dealing with the words "peeped" meaning "looked in" and "peeped" meaning "made a chirping sound"; with the words "rushes" meaning "hurries" and "rushes" meaning "plants"; with "fast" meaning "quickly" and "fast" meaning "tightly" and "fast" meaning "sound," as in "fast asleep"; with "blow" meaning "to move the air" and "blow" meaning "to blossom"; and with "bear" meaning an "animal" and "bear" meaning "to endure" and "bear" meaning "to carry." These represented only the most evident difficulties. It remained to make a more careful study of the meanings of all words that recur in identical form in order to determine how serious a problem they present in children's reading.

This was part of a larger analytical study of the vocabularies of the fourteen readers. Each word in each reader was recorded on a slip of paper, and the slips were arranged in alphabetical order; all slips bearing like words in each book were assembled. Those of obviously similar meaning were then discarded, and a list was made of the recurring words with different meanings. The next step was to define the words. *Webster's New International Dictionary*, *Funk and Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary*, and *The Winston Simplified Dictionary* were used to verify the definitions. There were a few words used in a colloquial sense not recognized by any of the dictionaries, such as "a pig in a wig," obviously meaning "a pig 'dressed' in a wig"; "at work on the nest," "at" meaning "engaged in"; "sat at the table," "at" meaning "beside"; and "Alas for manners!" "for" meaning "as to."

Some words recurred in idiomatic expressions but were so dependent in meaning on the other words that it was found impossible to isolate them for definition. For instance, in the expression "take a bath" "take" cannot be isolated and defined adequately; in "had on a dress" "had" and "on" together mean "wore." Such recurring words were discarded.

When several forms of the same verb occurred, one form only was kept unless recurrences in the other forms introduced meanings different from those already listed for the verb, such as "made" meaning "caused," "constructed," and "produced" and "make" meaning "force" and "get." In many instances words were almost identical, such as the verb "leave" and the noun "leaves." These were discarded but are not to be disregarded since they are trouble-makers. If, however, the only difference in form between two words lay in the capital letter, the words were kept, since the spelling and the pronunciation were identical, as "May," a girl's name; "May," the fifth month; "may" referring to permission; and "may" referring to probability. Table I reproduces some of the recurring words taken from *The Child's Own Way Primer*. It illustrates the difference between the number of recurring words a child is required to recognize and the number of interpretations he is called upon to make. For the thirteen words to be recognized, the child must comprehend thirty-four meanings.

Table II presents a list of the different words that recur with different meanings in the fourteen primary readers taken as a unit. Accompanying each word is the total number of different interpretations found in all the readers. In all, 222 different words were found that recurred at least once in the readers. For these 222 words, a total of 842 meanings were discovered, making, on the average, 3.79 different interpretations for each word in the entire set of fourteen readers.

Table III shows the number of words that recur with different meanings in each reader, the total number of interpretations necessary, and the average number of meanings per word. In each of the series the number of recurrences progressively increases from the primer through the second reader. The greatest number of words recurring with different meanings was found in *The Boys' and Girls'*

Readers, the primer having 31; the first reader, 62; and the second reader, 112. The average number of meanings per word is more than three. *The Elson Readers* have the next largest number of recurring words, with 33 in the primer, 57 in the first reader, and 100 in the second reader, the average number of meanings per word ranging from 2.33 to 3.02. *The Pathway to Reading* series has a smaller number of recurring words than have either *The Boys' and Girls' Readers* or *The Elson Readers* but a larger number of meanings per word, the range being from 3.21 to 3.30. *The Child's Own Way Primer* has twenty-five words recurring with different meanings, six more than has *The Winston Primer*. Both *The Child's Own Way First Reader* and *The Winston First Reader* have thirty-six recurring words. *The Winston Second Reader* has eighty-three recurring words, a larger number than has *The Pathway to Reading Second Reader*. The average number of meanings per word ranges in *The Child's Own Way Series* from 2.88 to 3.33 and in *The Winston Readers* from 2.42 to 2.99.

TABLE I

RECURRING WORDS WITH DIFFERENT MEANINGS IN "THE CHILD'S OWN WAY PRIMER"

Word	Meaning	Word	Meaning
after	behind	from	from the region of
after	in pursuit of	from	off
at	on	good	delicious
at	to the extent of	good	kind
by (and by)	after some time	had	held
by	near	had	possessed
by	past	had	was forced to
call	name	in	during
call	say loudly	in	into
fast	quickly	in	toward
fast	sound (asleep)	in	within
for	in behalf of	just	at that very moment
for	in exchange for	just	exactly
for	in order to find	lap	part of the anatomy
for	in order to obtain	lap	to lick up
for	suitable for	looked	glanced
for	to the extent of	looked	searched

TABLE II

Two Hundred and Twenty-two Words That Recur in the Fourteen Readers and the Total Number of Different Meanings for Each

Word	Number of Meanings	Word	Number of Meanings	Word	Number of Meanings
1. about	6	50. drive	2	99. letter	2
2. above	2	51. drop	2	100. lies	2
3. across	2	52. else	2	101. light	2
4. after	4	53. even	2	102. like	3
5. against	2	54. fair	4	103. little	2
6. all	2	55. far	2	104. living	2
7. along	4	56. fast	3	105. load	2
8. around	3	57. field	2	106. long	3
9. as	9	58. fine	8	107. looked	5
10. at	20	59. flew	3	108. made	7
11. away	5	60. foot	3	109. make	7
12. back	4	61. for	21	110. march	2
13. bad	4	62. from	9	111. mark	2
14. bank	3	63. full	2	112. matter	3
15. be	3	64. fun	2	113. may	3
16. bear	3	65. funny	2	114. meal	2
17. before	2	66. gave	2	115. merry	2
18. behind	2	67. get	9	116. might	2
19. bit (bite)	4	68. give	4	117. mind	2
20. blew	2	69. go	2	118. miss	2
21. blow	3	70. gold	3	119. more	2
22. blue	2	71. gone	2	120. most	2
23. bow	2	72. good	14	121. mouth	2
24. bridges	2	73. got	6	122. my	2
25. bright	2	74. great	6	123. nail	2
26. but	4	75. grew	2	124. name	2
27. by	12	76. ground	2	125. new	4
28. call (ed)	3	77. grow	3	126. next	2
29. can	2	78. had	4	127. number	2
30. care	2	79. hard	8	128. of	20
31. chains	2	80. has	3	129. off	6
32. change	2	81. have	7	130. old	4
33. chased	2	82. high	4	131. on	23
34. clear	2	83. hold	3	132. only	3
35. cloth	2	84. hung	2	133. open	5
36. cold	2	85. in	22	134. orange	2
37. comb	3	86. into	3	135. order	2
38. cover	2	87. jump	2	136. other	3
39. crack	2	88. just	5	137. out	15
40. cried	2	89. keep (s)	9	138. over	10
41. cross	3	90. kept	2	139. park	3
42. crow	2	91. kind	3	140. patch	2
43. cup	2	92. land	2	141. peep	3
44. dear	2	93. lap	2	142. pet	2
45. do	4	94. last	4	143. pinch	2
46. done	2	95. lay	3	144. place	3
47. door	2	96. leaves	2	145. plant (ed)	3
48. down	5	97. left	4	146. play	4
49. draw	4	98. let	2	147. poor	6

TABLE II—*Continued*

Word	Number of Meanings	Word	Number of Meanings	Word	Number of Meanings
148. post	2	174. shed	2	200. through	4
149. put	3	175. shoot	2	201. time	3
150. quite	3	176. should	2	202. to	17
151. race	2	177. show	3	203. top	3
152. raise	2	178. sight	3	204. train	2
153. reach	3	179. silver	2	205. turn	4
154. rest	2	180. sit	2	206. up	24
155. rich	2	181. snuff	2	207. very	2
156. right	9	182. so	9	208. wait	2
157. ring (s)	3	183. soft	4	209. walk	2
158. rock	2	184. sorry	2	210. wall	2
159. roll	2	185. sound	2	211. want	2
160. room	2	186. spring	2	212. watch	2
161. rose	2	187. square	2	213. waves	2
162. rough	2	188. step	3	214. way	8
163. round	2	189. stick	2	215. well	10
164. rushes	2	190. still	4	216. went	2
165. safe	2	191. stop	2	217. what	2
166. sail	2	192. stories	2	218. while	2
167. save	2	193. straight	2	219. why	2
168. saw	2	194. sweets	5	220. wide	3
169. second	2	195. take	10	221. with	6
170. see	2	196. tea	2	222. yet	2
171. set	8	197. tell	5		
172. shall	2	198. there	2	Total	842
173. sharp	2	199. things	2		

If each word recurred with only two or three meanings, the problem would be sufficiently great, but in reality it is even more complex. Table II shows that more than half the recurring words, 124 of the 222, have two different meanings to be comprehended; 38 require three different interpretations; and 21, four interpretations. The rest of the recurring words, however, have a greater number of meanings; 7 have five meanings; 6 have six meanings; 3 have seven; 4 have eight; 6 have nine; and 3 have ten. "By" requires twelve different interpretations; "good," fourteen; "out," fifteen; "to," seventeen; "at" and "of," twenty each; "for," twenty-one; "in," twenty-two; "on," twenty-three; and "up," twenty-four. The extension of the "primary sense" of prepositions has produced a multiplicity of meanings that have been used profusely, as indicated, in primary reading.

Table IV shows the number of different meanings of certain prepositions found in each of the fourteen books. *The Boys' and*

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Girls' Readers and *The Pathway to Reading* series use the prepositions with the greatest variety of meanings, "in" necessitating twelve

TABLE III

NUMBER OF WORDS THAT RECUR IN EACH OF THE FOURTEEN READERS, TOTAL NUMBER OF MEANINGS, AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF MEANINGS PER WORD

	Number of Words That Recur	Total Number of Meanings	Average Number of Meanings per Word
The Winston Readers:			
Primer	19	46	2.42
First Reader	36	97	2.69
Second Reader	83	248	2.99
The Elson Readers:			
Primer	33	77	2.33
Book One	57	172	3.02
Book Two	100	284	2.84
The Boys' and Girls' Readers:			
Primer	31	96	3.10
First Reader	62	194	3.13
Second Reader	112	360	3.21
The Pathway to Reading:			
Primer	28	90	3.21
First Reader	55	181	3.29
Second Reader	79	261	3.30
The Child's Own Way Series:			
Primer	25	72	2.88
First Reader	36	120	3.33

TABLE IV

IMPORTANT PREPOSITIONS AND TOTAL NUMBER OF TIMES EACH RECURS WITH DIFFERENT MEANINGS IN EACH OF THE FOURTEEN READERS

PREPOSITION	THE WINSTON READERS			THE ELSON READERS			THE BOYS' AND GIRLS' READERS			THE PATHWAY TO READING			THE CHILD'S OWN WAY SERIES	
	P	I	II	P	I	II	P	I	II	P	I	II	P	I
at	0	2	8	2	4	7	6	6	9	2	8	7	2	5
by	2	3	2	0	4	6	0	4	7	6	5	6	3	2
for	2	4	7	5	7	6	7	6	10	5	4	8	6	7
from	0	0	3	0	2	2	3	4	6	2	4	6	2	4
in	4	6	6	2	4	6	5	8	12	5	10	14	4	8
of	3	5	7	2	7	6	3	5	11	6	9	11	5	7
off	0	0	2	0	2	2	0	0	4	0	0	2	0	2
on	3	4	7	3	4	10	4	7	15	6	6	10	6	8
out	0	0	0	0	3	2	2	5	7	3	4	7	2	3
over	0	3	5	0	5	5	0	0	5	0	3	2	0	2
to	4	5	8	4	10	9	7	8	12	7	10	10	6	6
up	3	4	7	4	5	7	7	11	9	5	8	13	5	8
with	2	2	5	0	4	4	4	4	6	3	6	6	3	3

interpretations in the second reader of the former and fourteen in the second reader of the latter. "Of" has eleven meanings in both *The Boys' and Girls' Second Reader* and *The Pathway to Reading Second Reader;* "on" has fifteen meanings in the former and ten in the latter; "up" has nine meanings in the former and thirteen in the latter. These data indicate the serious difficulty which children encounter in acquiring an accurate meaning vocabulary.

The burden of interpretation placed on the children is, as indicated by these findings, greater than is usually realized by teachers. Those making diagnostic studies of deficiency in comprehension might to advantage consider the matter of identical words recurring with different meanings as one of the very real causes of difficulty.

This article has pointed out that a probable reason for difficulty in the comprehension of reading lies in the fact that textbook-writers in their effort to familiarize children with certain words have provided for numerous recurrences of these words but have disregarded the fact that frequently the words recur with entirely different meanings. One way to bring this evidence before the teacher is to include in the vocabulary, at the end of the reader, not only all words of different form but also all words recurring with different meanings. The page on which each word is used in a different sense should also be noted. Finally, there should be a clear statement of the meaning of each recurring word.

TEACHERS' REMEDIES FOR CLASSROOM DIFFICULTIES

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The purpose of the study here reported was to discover the remedies teachers themselves propose for the difficulties which they most frequently encounter in the classroom. In an earlier issue of the *Elementary School Journal*[1] the writer presented a list of ninety difficulties specified by 256 teachers and ranked by 451 other teachers.

In a later inquiry, which is the basis of the present report, seventy-four of these difficulties were grouped under eleven main headings, printed in a folder, and sent to another group of teachers, each of whom was asked to select the one or more problems he had been most successful in solving in his school and to explain the method adopted for solution. The following are the problems listed under the heading "Individual Differences."

Dull pupils are by their dullness a drag on the class and a bore to the brighter pupils. How can the problem best be met?

Dull pupils often receive more than their proportional share of time and attention. How can the problem be handled so that injustice is not done the bright pupils?

Bright pupils lose advancement and fail to develop their powers because the work is planned for the average or slow pupils. What can be done to give the bright pupil his full chance?

Returns were received from 395 teachers (341 elementary-school teachers and 54 high-school teachers). In interpreting the data here presented, one should keep in mind the fact that each teacher reported on the one or more problems which he had met and in his opinion had been successful in solving. Problems which he had not met or which he had not worked out to a satisfactory solution are not included in the table or in the later summaries.

[1] George H. Betts, "Teachers' Diagnosis of Classroom Difficulties," *Elementary School Journal*, XXVII (April, 1927), 600–608.

FREQUENCY OF SOLUTIONS PROPOSED

Table I shows the number of problems in each of the eleven main problem groups and the average number of solutions per problem offered by the 395 teachers.

The data in Table I indicate that teachers estimate quite differently their success in solving the difficulties in the different problem groups. The teachers proposed an average of six solutions per problem under the problem groups "community and home" and "building and equipment," or one solution for each sixty-six teachers. Under "community and home" such difficulties were proposed as little community interest in the school, outside interests infringe on pupil's time and energy, and parental interference with school discipline. Under "building and equipment" were such problems as unsuitable seating, lack of necessary equipment, and insufficient ventilation.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF PROBLEMS IN EACH PROBLEM GROUP AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF SOLUTIONS PER PROBLEM OFFERED BY 395 TEACHERS

Problem Group	Number of Problems in Group	Average Number of Solutions Offered per Problem
1. Individual differences	3	73
2. Study and lesson-getting	9	38
3. Attendance and regularity	3	37
4. Social demeanor and adjustment	7	31
5. School attitudes and conduct	8	23
6. Teaching the lesson	10	22
7. The teacher himself	7	12
8. Textbooks and materials	4	11
9. Organization and administration	9	10
10. Building and equipment	7	6
11. Community and home	7	6

Under "individual differences" the teachers proposed an average of seventy-three solutions per problem, or one solution for every five or six teachers reporting.

"School attitudes and conduct," the problem group ranked as the most difficult by the teachers in the earlier study referred to, shows an average of twenty-three solutions per problem, or one solution for each seventeen teachers. In this group were such prob-

lems as unintentional noise or disorder, bad attitude toward correction or discipline, dishonesty in school work, and destruction or waste of school supplies.

In the earlier study the problem group "teaching the lesson" was ranked third in difficulty. In the present study this group is sixth in the average number of solutions offered per problem; there was an average of twenty-two solutions per problem, or one solution for each eighteen teachers. In this problem group were such difficulties as a tendency to listlessness or inattention, the overtalkative pupil, choice of suitable method, and treatment of partial or faulty recitations.

TYPES OF SOLUTIONS PROPOSED

It may be said in general that the teachers offered a wide range of solutions for the difficulties discussed, many of the solutions being stated in terms of concrete instances. The replies bear the stamp of practical experience rather than of untried theory.

1. *Individual differences.*—The large majority of the teachers are demanding that classes of average size shall be separated into at least two groups on the basis of I.Q.'s and achievement. An appreciable number are strongly in favor of an opportunity room for each building for the care of the slowest pupils from the various rooms. The proposal is made by some to keep the bright and the dull pupils together and to direct the recitations so that the bright pupils lead, the slower pupils getting what they can and then receiving special help later from the teacher or an assistant or at home. Enthusiastic recommendation is given the contract system. A few advocate conducting the recitation on the level of the duller pupils, the brighter pupils being called upon to help the others understand the lesson. In some cases the bright pupils are assigned as coaches for the slower pupils while the lesson is being prepared; this suggests something of the old policy of the monitor system. A few teachers would discard all class organization and depend on individual work with assistance as required. Others defend the practice of dismissing the bright pupils from the recitation when they have contributed their part, allowing them to do other work or to read while the slower pupils remain for further help.

Probably the most encouraging impression received from the solutions offered for this group of problems is the very general recognition of the existence of individual differences and of the right of every child to the full use of his powers.

2. *Study and lesson-getting.*—The complaints with regard to study and lesson-getting deal chiefly with lack of concentration, unwillingness to work hard or long, and lack of knowledge of how to study. The chief key to the solution of most of the difficulties involved is interest, motivation, and the setting-free and the calling into action of the latent energy and neural "readiness" of the individual. Much is made of the teacher's appreciation of effort and achievement. Some teachers use charts to show pupil progress. Others stimulate emulation and competition. Special emphasis is laid on making certain of the suitability of the work for the age level concerned. Use of the assignment to suggest method, to set up definite objectives, and to emphasize hard points is recommended. High-school teachers emphasize the stimulating of a sense of personal pride and responsibility in the pupil. Some teachers are advocates of a rigid system of compulsion, the holding of each individual to a reasonable minimum. Supervised study is mentioned by only a few. A considerable number believe that much of the difficulty with lesson-getting lies in faulty reading ability and take measures to test silent reading. A few frankly state that no small amount of faulty study is the result of the teacher's inability or carelessness in outlining lesson assignments. A few use the lesson period for supervised study instead of recitation. In a number of instances medical attention has proved to be the proper remedy for faulty study and mastery. Diagnostic tests are employed to discover the nature of the pupils' defects, and proper remedies are then devised. Many teachers find that pupils fail because of lack of fundamental knowledge that should have been acquired in earlier grades and take steps to supply the deficiency. Work handed in late is frequently penalized or refused. Posted records of achievement are used as an incentive.

3. *Attendance and regularity.*—Chief dependence is placed by a majority of the teachers on interesting school activities rather than compulsion to cure truancy and tardiness. Parents are visited, or

cordial notes are sent to them asking for their co-operation. Some teachers organize competition between rooms or classes to establish regularity and punctuality. A few resort to severe measures and admit no tardy child or absentee without a full explanation from the parent. Any time lost must be made up out of school hours. The plan is used of assigning a pupil coach to a child who has been absent in order to help him make up his work. It is recommended that tardiness or truancy be considered an offense against the group and the group allowed to fix the penalty. Several teachers found tardiness cured by having unusually interesting opening exercises. Not a few have found that tardiness and absence are caused by required work at home. A remedy in such a case is sought through the parent.

4. *Social demeanor and adjustment.*—From the kindergarten to the high school the teachers urge the welding of the school into a social group in order to supply the situations in which co-operation and the social graces may be taught and practiced. Play is the medium most recommended for such instruction with the younger child. High-school teachers have private conferences with pupils who are deficient socially in an effort to set up suitable ideals. Many elementary schools organize clubs of various sorts and make social participation a feature of the activities. The suggestion is frequently made that the teacher's example counts for more in this field than in almost any other in the school. For high-school pupils some teachers recommend the co-operative selection of a list of social traits, which are made the objective of the school group. Special care is advocated for the treatment of pupils who are socially timid or who have inferiority complexes, sympathy, tact, and appreciation being the prime requisites.

5. *School attitudes and conduct.*—A considerable proportion of the solutions offered for problems in school attitudes and conduct provide for a large element of co-operation and self-control. Teachers try to make the school group truly social, with its own code of honor and behavior. Emphasis is placed on the teacher's sense of justice and fairness. Many teachers insist that, if the work is interesting and plentiful, discipline will tend to take care of itself. Primary teachers explain the need of quiet and order so that others may not

be imposed upon. Other teachers discuss with their pupils the need for rules and regulations, and a code is outlined and adopted. The unruly pupil is studied by the teacher; he is referred to the school physician or psychologist, and his parents are consulted. In general, he is treated as a pathological case, with mental or physical abnormalities to be corrected. A few teachers contend that nagging teachers are sometimes responsible for unfavorable attitudes and poor conduct on the part of pupils. Care and protection of school property is motivated by having the pupils help in furnishing, decorating, and cleaning the schoolroom so that they develop a personal pride and a sense of ownership in it. Teachers explain how taxes paid by parents and neighbors support the school and buy supplies. The treatment suggested for dishonesty in school work is largely putting pupils on their honor, trusting them. Some recommend forfeiture of term credit when any cheating is discovered. Others so arrange seating and questions that cheating in examinations is difficult.

6. *Teaching the lesson.*—Many teachers frankly accept the chief responsibility for pupils' listlessness and inattention in the recitation, saying that with an alert teacher and good methods such conditions do not obtain. A goodly number especially stress improved technique and describe the change in response when the method is made suitable. Many place the responsibility for inattention on bad air, distractions from street noises, or confusion in the schoolroom. In dealing with difficulties encountered in the recitation, most teachers accept the position that children are naturally alert and interested and that, when they are not alert and interested, the cause may usually be found in the lessons, the teacher, or the surroundings. Some teachers find that failure on the part of pupils to respond is often due to failure to master some basic materials, the lack of knowledge of which leaves them helpless and discouraged. Much is made of the socialized recitation as a cure for lack of interest. Some make use of the spirit of competition between classes or parts of a class. A considerable number of teachers have found imperfect assignment of lessons a great source of difficulty in the recitation. Many require the pupils to have special notebooks in which all daily assignments are carefully written. Some who have found the over-talkative pupil a burden have cured the tendency

by devices that encourage thought before speech. A few teachers suggest mathematical precision in calling on pupils, giving dull and bright pupils exactly the same number of opportunities to recite. Others condemn this plan and urge that the recitation should be more of an informal discussion, each pupil bearing his part but with no mechanical equalizing of questions. Some teachers call first on all the duller pupils and use the brighter pupils to supplement and correct the others. Teachers confess a tendency on their part to answer the question asked if the pupil hesitates or gives an incorrect answer. The remedy suggested is self-control and recognition of the fact that good teaching is revealing instead of telling.

7. *The teacher himself.*—As is perhaps natural, teachers offer fewer suggestions concerning themselves as individuals than about other factors connected with their work. Many object to the salary level, urging that steps be taken to make the salary more nearly commensurate with the responsibility. Particularly is it urged that the upper salary limit is too near the beginning salary. Many suggest as a cure for scolding and crossness two remedies: improvement of the physical tone through a careful regimen of food, rest, and exercise and the cultivation of a philosophy of life which stresses serenity and a sense of humor.

8. *Textbooks and materials.*—Teachers are not conscious of serious difficulties which originate in the textbooks. In the earlier study referred to, textbooks and materials were placed almost at the bottom of the list of school difficulties. In the present study little attention is given to this factor. Some recommend the omission of unsuitable parts of a book and the substitution of other material. In some cases this substitution is made on the teacher's own responsibility and without the consent of the principal. In a few cases an adopted basal textbook is laid aside and a supplemental textbook used in its place, the teacher thus circumventing the adoption board. A few teachers have felt forced to discard an unsuitable textbook, employing in its place mimeographed materials which they have compiled. A considerable number register strong disapproval of the practice prevailing in some schools of expecting teachers to make their own drill charts, flash cards, etc. It is recommended that the school provide printed materials whenever such materials are used.

9. *Organization and administration.*—A very general accusation made of the administration is that of lack of wisdom or consistency in pupil promotions. The complaint is made that pupils unprepared for the new work are promoted. It is recommended that opportunity rooms be provided for those not ready for promotion. Some make the teacher share the responsibility, saying that teachers often give out dishonest monthly report cards in order to conceal the weaknesses of their pupils. A goodly number demand that the size of the classes be reduced, the maximum number in some cases being set at twenty-five. A few teachers object to unskilled supervision and ask for greater freedom from cast-iron requirements so that they may use their own initiative.

10. *Building and equipment.*—Many teachers tell of beautifying their schoolrooms as a project of the pupils and the teacher working together and assert that the improved spirit in the school is worth all the time and effort expended. The pupils have in some cases been allowed to appeal directly to the school board for relief from unsatisfactory conditions. Parent-teacher associations have aided in securing suitable seating. Many teachers use special programs, food or candy sales, and other devices for raising money for equipment. The wisdom of this as a policy is not discussed, the only claim being that sometimes it relieves intolerable situations.

11. *Community and home.*—These teachers evidently believe in advertising the school to the home and to the community. They have organized parent clubs, placed school news in the local papers, held open days for the public, promoted education days in the churches, sought the co-operation of the parent-teacher association, made visits to the homes, sent special invitations to the parents to visit the school, and published school papers giving news to the public. They have secured the co-operation of parents in restricting outside programs and entertainments on school nights. They have organized social activities within the school so interesting that they competed successfully with motion-picture shows, theaters, and dances. In short, teachers seem to take it for granted that the school must take the initiative in securing co-operation from the home.

THE SUPERVISOR'S RELATION TO CLASSROOM DIFFICULTIES

Nothing startling or new appears in most of the solutions offered by the teachers for these more common school difficulties. Some of the remedies proposed may be seriously open to question. On the whole, however, the measures adopted seem based on sound psychology and practical wisdom. It is to be remembered, however, that the solutions were supplied by teachers who believed that their solutions had proved successful. The many other difficulties of similar kind which every teacher meets may not have been successfully solved. Is it not possible that school administrators, supervisors, psychologists, and others concerned with the proper functioning of the school organism could well afford to give more careful study to the common, everyday variety of difficulties which occupy a large part of the teacher's thought and time?

WHAT IS A B PUPIL?

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A B pupil could, of course, be anything according to the criterion by which he is judged to be different from an A pupil. Intelligence tests are now widely used to divide classes into differently teachable groups. When such a procedure is adopted, the B pupil is generally the one of lower intelligence quotient or of lower mental age. The ability known as "general intelligence" is the important factor in such a case, and it is usually conceded to be of great importance for school work. A division of a class on the basis of the results of an intelligence test is considered very efficient from the point of view of both teaching and learning. Whether it is the most efficient system of selection is certainly worthy of consideration in spite of the wide vogue given to its application. The fact that abilities other than general intelligence enter into school achievement claims recognition in an ideal plan of grouping. Very closely connected with this reservation is the probability that there may be different kinds of intelligence as well as different degrees of intelligence, and this might show itself in the fact that two groups might differ from each other not only as to amount of intelligence but also as to quality.

The importance of what might be considered as qualitative differences in intelligence as compared with what might be considered as quantitative is suggested in a short and rather incomplete study of thirty-nine A pupils and thirty-one B pupils in the fifth grade in two small city schools. One principal had charge of both these schools. He was considered a very good school man and prided himself on the rather thorough knowledge that he possessed of the boys and girls intrusted to him. He divided most of the grades into two groups according to scholarship. He did not employ intelligence tests for this purpose but placed each pupil in the A group or in the B group according to the knowledge that he himself had acquired concerning the pupil and the information that he was able to acquire

through the teachers. The basis of classification was rather subjective, but it had the undeniable merit of seeming to work very well in practice.

Both the A group and the B group studied were given three tests—the Stanford Achievement Test, the National Intelligence Test, and the McCall Multi-Mental Scale. Some very interesting facts were discovered in the comparison. The B group was inferior in all the subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test; it was inferior in the total score by five points, which means a difference in educational age of about five months. The National Intelligence Test gave the B group a median mental age of eleven years and .3 of a month and the A group a median mental age of eleven years and four months. This difference in mental age is not very great and would not seem to explain the choice of pupils for the two groups. The fact that they differed more in achievement than in general intelligence would seem to indicate that the principal had school proficiency in mind as well as native ability when he made the selection.

Up to this point there is nothing very remarkable about the comparison of the two groups, as it might be expected that a school officer who does not rely on the results of intelligence tests for purposes of classification would consider scholastic standing in his plan of grouping. It might be more surprising, however, that the National Intelligence Test does not differentiate so well. If it is assumed, however, that the difference between A and B pupils in intelligence is not so much a matter of degree as it is of kind, it need not be surprising. The score obtained on the National Intelligence Test is an average of at least five different abilities and hence is a quantitative score rather than a qualitative score. If the superiority of A pupils is to be expressed in qualitative terms, the use of the National Intelligence Test would hardly be justified.

To test the existence of qualitative rather than quantitative differences in intelligence, the scores made by the two groups on the McCall Multi-Mental Scale, which is a test largely of one mental function, and the scores made by the two groups on subtests of the National Intelligence Test were compared. There are differences here that do not show up in a comparison of scores on the National Intelligence Test.

According to the McCall test, the median I.Q.'s of the A and B groups were 102.7 and 90.6, respectively; the median mental ages, eleven years and 5.1 months and ten years and 2.7 months, respectively. There is a difference in favor of the A group of 12.1 points in I.Q. and a difference of one year and 2.4 months in mental age. These differences are much greater than the corresponding differences between the two groups as measured by the National Intelligence Test. In this case the superiority of the A group is only 4.4 points in I.Q. and 3.7 months in mental age. The measurements obtained by both tests for the A group do not differ much, the I.Q. according to the National Intelligence Test being 102.1 as compared with an I.Q. of 102.7 as determined by the McCall test; the difference in mental age is correspondingly small—1.1 months. It is in connection with the B group that the McCall test shows a great difference. It lowers the I.Q. by 7.1 points and the mental age by 9.6 months. It would seem, therefore, that the McCall test is a better test to use in selecting pupils for separate classes, at least according to the standards of this principal. It seems to be a particular deficiency in that ability measured by the McCall test that makes the B pupil.

Another comparison that would seem to suggest that the difference may be qualitative rather than quantitative is one made on the basis of the subtests of the National Intelligence Test. A comparison of the scores of both groups on Test 3, which measures insight into essential relationships, and the scores obtained on Test 5, which is a substitution test, or one of pure learning ability, will probably be enlightening. In Test 3 the superiority of the A group was 4.8 points (P.E., .76), while in Test 5 the superiority of the A group was only 1.35 points (P.E., .63). In order to be certain that a point on one of these tests means approximately the same thing as a point on the other, a comparison can be made of the standard deviations, which are of about the same size—6.8 and 5.6, respectively. It would seem, then, that the A group is very definitely superior to the B group in that ability measured by Test 3 but very little superior in that ability measured by Test 5 if there is any real difference at all. An A pupil is apparently one who is superior in gaining an insight into essential relationships, not necessarily one who is superior in learn-

ing ability. It may be concluded, then, that, while the total score obtained on the National Intelligence Test may not be very significant in differentiating the two classes of pupils because it is an average score, some of the subtests apparently show a difference between the two groups and indicate that the difference is qualitative.

The McCall test seems to agree with Test 3 of the National Intelligence Test in indicating that the A pupil is superior to the B pupil in comprehending relationships, and it may have been this particular ability that formed the criterion for the principal when he made his selections. It is apparently a matter of choosing the right kind of intelligence tests for the purpose in view. In the present instance, the use of the National Intelligence Test would probably not have met with the approval of the principal, but the McCall test would have been much more satisfactory. That intelligence tests have fallen into disrepute in some quarters is probably due to the fact that appropriate types of tests were not used.

There is an interesting commentary in this connection on both the use of intelligence tests and the nature of the B pupil. The differences existing between A and B pupils will not always respond to all kinds of intelligence tests, and those tests better adapted to showing qualitative differences in mentality will often succeed where the others may fail. The B pupil is one who differs more as to the kind of intelligence that he possesses than as to the degree, and appropriate tests must be used for his selection.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A book for teachers in the middle grades.—For a number of years there have been available to primary teachers opportunities for a considerable amount of specialization in their chosen field. Similar opportunities for special preparation have been available to teachers in the senior high school and recently, to a less extent, to teachers in the junior high school. One of the results of these developments has been that good teachers have been attracted to the primary grades and to the high school whereas there has been little to encourage teachers to attempt special preparation for work in the middle grades. Recognizing this general situation, Professor Henderson has attempted to supply a body of material bearing on the problems of the middle grades which will make possible some degree of special preparation at this level.

Professor Henderson has divided his book[1] into two general parts, the first of which deals with "Foundations of Materials and Methods" and the second with "Materials and Methods Applied." The scope of his treatment is very large—somewhat larger, the reviewer thinks, than can be handled adequately within the limits of a single book.

The book opens with a discussion of the physical, mental, and social characteristics of pupils in the middle grades. This is followed by a treatment of the development of speech, social relations, aesthetic relations, and the understanding of economic and scientific practices. The materials used in the middle grades and the various suitable methods of teaching are treated somewhat briefly. There is also included in Part I a discussion of the teaching personnel for the middle grades. Part II consists of seven chapters relating to seven divisions of subject matter: health education, language, social subjects, natural science, mathematics, practical arts, and fine arts. In each of these seven chapters the author treats both the materials and the methods which are appropriate to the grades under consideration.

The book is well supplied with bibliographies for further study and also with special exercises to be used when the book is employed as a textbook. The purpose of the author in developing a body of material for the middle grades is extremely laudable. The inclusion of the various kinds of material within the scope of a single book may appear a somewhat doubtful procedure,

[1] Joseph Lindsey Henderson, *Materials and Methods in the Middle Grades*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+376. $3.00.

but the use of the book with prospective teachers in these grades will serve as the best indication of whether its scope is too large or not. The chief criticism which the reviewer has to make of the scope of the book is the necessarily superficial treatment given to some of the topics, as, for example, the treatment of "Social Attitudes" in the first chapter. There is scarcely enough material in this section to contribute to any real understanding on the part of the reader, and the result is a somewhat unsatisfactory treatment. The book should receive the attention of instructors in normal-school classes for teachers in the four upper elementary grades.

G. T. BUSWELL

An analysis of student persistence.—If the ultimate academic history of any student body is to be predicted, the most logical basis for prediction is the actual performance of similar student bodies. The author of a recent monograph[1] has ingeniously formulated a technique by which the student bodies that are to be studied are made comparable to the one for which the prediction is to be made. Such factors as the recency or the remoteness of the data, changing attitudes toward higher education, and changes in economic conditions are not permitted to affect the validity of the study.

Since it was obviously unwise to make a direct study of any particular group in attempting to determine an adequate basis for prediction, Dr. Tallman worked from two angles, taking for analysis (1) an entering or Freshman class and (2) a group that had been graduated. By combining the data, he was able to procure evidence that an analysis of one group alone would not furnish; for example, retracing the history of the graduates to matriculation furnished information concerning those who did a portion of their work elsewhere, and the study of the Freshman group from matriculation to the present supplied a history of those who left college before graduation.

The further purpose of the author and the character of the study are made apparent by the following quotation.

> This study aims to do two things: (1) to make available for immediate use a considerable amount of data concerning what actually happens in a large student body in the way of persistence; and (2) to make the necessary data immediately available for more specific and detailed analyses. *It is primarily a study of what actually happened at the University of Iowa over a period of years rather than a study of why certain things happened* [p. 28].

The author bases on a sane statistical interpretation of the data a number of conclusions concerning various problems which are typified by the following: the age at which the greatest percentage of college graduates completed high school; the age at which the greatest number graduated from the university; the percentage of the graduating class that had attended college elsewhere;

[1] Russell Warrick Tallman, *A Critical Analysis of Student Persistence at the State University of Iowa.* University of Iowa Studies, Volume IV, Number 1. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1927. Pp. 64. $0.75.

the length of the period between graduation from high school and entrance into college for men and women, liberal-arts students and applied-arts students; the percentage of an entering class that may be expected eventually to complete four years of college work; the percentage of an entering class that may be expected to complete four years of work at the University of Iowa; the correlation between intelligence and grade points; grade-point averages from year to year; and the intelligence of those leaving school before graduation.

Dr. Tallman has contributed not only a large body of material which appears in tabulated form in the highly satisfactory Appendix but also a technique which may be applied to similar studies. A number of such investigations must be made before conclusions having general application can be drawn.

HERMAN G. RICHEY

How to study and read in the elementary school.—Within the past four or five years more than a dozen books dealing with techniques of study, methods of work, and problems of adjustment have been issued by as many different publishers. However, these discussions have been concerned with various phases of orientation and guidance at the college and high-school levels. It has remained for Professor Yoakam to write a book[1] on how to study designed specifically for use in the first six grades of the elementary school.

Introductory chapters describe the nature of reading and study and the place of the work type of reading in a study program. A series of chapters are concerned with the various aspects of reading and study: specific reading skills involved, methods of study and reading, use of books, the single reading, rereading, and the habits and attitudes developed. Four chapters are devoted to a course of study in reading and study habits which the author developed in the elementary grades in a city in Pennsylvania. This course of study includes an enumeration by grades of the attitudes, knowledge, skills, and habits involved in the author's reading-study program. The last two problems discussed in the book are the diagnostic and remedial treatment of reading and study difficulties and the relation of reading and study to certain newer methods in education, such as problem and project methods, socialized and discussion procedures, individualized instruction, and supervised or directed study.

The chapters are followed by lists of problems and references for supplementary reading. It is possible that confusion may arise on account of the rather questionable practice of abbreviating names of publishing houses; for example, Houghton (p. 125), Scott (p. 125), Little (p. 245), and Row (p. 326). The author shows wide familiarity with the literature in the field of reading and draws heavily on the available investigations, including his own work and that of his students. The book is well organized with respect to topical and paragraph headings. Many of the discussions are organized around concise lists of points or rules to be observed in reading and study. Valuable data are presented in

[1] Gerald Alan Yoakam, *Reading and Study*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. xii+502. $2.00.

seventeen tables, which might have been enumerated to advantage in a list of tables for the guidance of the reader. Charts for the diagnosis of individual and group weaknesses in the reading-study activity are reproduced. The book contains a minimum of the usual errors in proofreading, although three versions of the initials of a well-known authority in reading are given: A. T. Gates (p. 474), A. G. Gates (p. 491), and the correct form, A. I. Gates, which appears in most instances.

Professor Yoakam has prepared a treatment of reading and study which is well worth the attention of every elementary-school teacher and supervisor. However, it may be necessary to point out to the undiscriminating teacher that the work or study type of reading should not be allowed to assume a position of disproportionate emphasis in the elementary school. The development of appreciations, attitudes, interests, and the attendant rapid-reading procedures must not be neglected. The author himself recognizes the desirability of both types of reading and presents his discussion of the work type of reading because of his conviction that the elementary school has placed an exaggerated emphasis on reading for pleasure and appreciation to the partial neglect of reading for knowledge and information. Many of the principles discussed in the book are applicable to problems of reading and study at the secondary-school level and even at the college level. The conclusions are especially significant for teachers in the first six grades of the elementary school.

CARTER V. GOOD

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A textbook in educational psychology.—The large amount of disagreement among educational psychologists as to what should constitute the subject matter for a basic course in educational psychology was rather clearly indicated at a meeting of one of the sections of the National Society of College Teachers of Education held in Boston last February. In view of the variety of ideas as to what should be taught in such a course, one examines with great interest every new textbook in this subject, particularly if the author is of recognized standing in the profession. Professor Cameron's book,[1] which is designed for use by mature students in colleges and universities, provides a much more comprehensive treatment than did his earlier work, *Psychology and the School.*

The new book does not depart radically from the usual topics of educational psychology. Approximately 35 per cent of the book is devoted to such topics as definitions, the nervous system, original nature, individual differences, nature and nurture, and intelligence. Approximately 30 per cent of the space is given to the general aspects of learning, while approximately 35 per cent is devoted to special types of learning involved in the psychology of school subjects. In the last section the subjects treated are reading, spelling, writing,

[1] Edward Herbert Cameron, *Educational Psychology.* New York: Century Co., 1927. Pp. xiv+468. $2.50.

arithmetic, English, foreign language, history, science, and mathematics. Mental hygiene does not appear among the major topics discussed in the book.

The method of treatment is the usual one of first presenting the psychological principle and then following it with its application to educational problems. The selection of psychological principles has apparently been dominated by the desire to place the major emphasis of the book on learning in its various aspects. The treatment is balanced, and the selection of material throughout the book gives evidence of the author's familiarity with the field. The style of writing is exceptionally clear, the author succeeding in preparing a book for his students rather than for his colleagues. The least satisfactory part of the book is that which deals with the psychology of school subjects; this is unsatisfactory chiefly because the limitations of space prevent a fuller presentation of the mental processes underlying the various subjects.

As a whole, the book is a sane and reliable presentation of the data of educational psychology. Until educational psychologists can agree among themselves as to the treatment of various new topics, it is probably wise to present to students as a basic course those topics which have been well developed and which are based on reliable data. This Professor Cameron has done. In the reviewer's judgment, there is no more satisfactory textbook available at present for use with undergraduate students in college.

G. T. BUSWELL

A systematic treatment of school seating.—The application of a scientific method of investigation to one type of administrative problem is illustrated in Bennett's study[1] of the posture and seating of school children. The treatment of this subject is based on an elaborate body of technical data which the author gathered in preparing his Doctor's dissertation.

The first part of the book is a detailed treatment of the nature of good posture. Information is drawn from the subjects of physiology and anatomy to indicate both normally correct posture and its various pathological forms. In the remaining portion of the book, this study of posture is focused on the problem of correct seating in school. The treatment is objective throughout, the author supporting his recommendations by quantitative data presented in fifty-two tables. Illustrations and diagrams are used effectively throughout the book. A selected bibliography is provided.

The book will be of major interest to two classes of readers. Students interested in the physical growth of children will find in it a considerable body of data relating to segmental body measurements of children at different ages. This analytical method of studying children adds much to the understanding of their physical characteristics. However, the larger group of readers will doubtless consist of classes of teachers interested in the problem of good posture and school officials who are responsible for the selection of proper seating equip-

[1] Henry Eastman Bennett, *School Posture and Seating*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928. Pp. xii+324. $2.00.

ment. For such persons the material will constitute both a suitable textbook for systematic study and a valuable reference handbook. The book is an important contribution to the literature on its subject.

G. T. BUSWELL

An experimental study of visual aids in education.—The question of the comparative effectiveness of the visual aids most commonly used in the schools is the general problem of a recent report[1] which summarizes two series of experiments.

The report is concerned mainly with an investigation conducted in the laboratory of the University of Kansas during 1921–22. Both elementary-school pupils and college students were used as subjects. The forms of pictures selected for the investigation were the plain photograph, the stereograph, and the lantern slide. The principal measures employed for comparing the values of the different types of visual aids were the following: (1) the silent observation span, that is, the type of picture which commands the longest period of spontaneous attention; (2) a free-recall report of the elements observed in the pictures, the *Aussage* test; (3) the subject's statement of preference, given generally in response to a "concealed test"; and, for the further comparison of the lantern slide and the stereograph, (4) the extent to which each of these types of pictorial presentation was judged to increase the effectiveness of a closely correlated lesson. An interesting feature of the study, suggestive rather than conclusive, is the attempt to correlate the value of certain factors investigated, such as the effect of perspective in the stereograph, with the stage of mental development.

The controls necessary for such an experiment were carefully planned and executed. The experimental and statistical methods employed are described in detail. The author's findings are, on the whole, cautiously interpreted, and his conclusions seem to be supported by the data he presents.

In general, the supplementing of verbal lessons by pictorial illustrations was found advantageous. A brief statement of the conclusions concerning the relative values of the three types of pictures studied would probably be misleading; hence it is not offered in this review.

A supplementary part of the monograph is a discussion of an investigation made by the author in 1920–21. This earlier study deals primarily with the value of the motion picture in education and secondarily with the value of the simple drawing, or chart, and the lantern slide. The supplement is concerned also with suggestions for a teacher-training course in visual instruction.

The monograph may be recommended to research workers, teachers of visual instruction, and elementary-school teachers. Its principal value is probably in the careful description of the technique employed and in the suggestion of some of the important problems in the field of visual education.

ETHEL M. ABERNETHY

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[1] Joseph J. Weber, *Picture Values in Education.* Chicago: Educational Screen, Inc., 1928. Pp. 156.

Parent-teacher associations and their activities.—The activities and the objectives of an extra-school organization having a membership of more than one million parents and teachers present problems the solutions of which with their implications for educational practice should be of service to educators and to parent-teacher workers. A thorough understanding of the past history and of the present status of the parent-teacher association must be the equipment of those who are to formulate and administer the policies of that organization. The author of a recent book[1] has made the most thorough investigation yet available of the problems arising from the functioning of the parent-teacher association.

The author states the major problems of the study as follows:

> The chief problems in this study are three: (1) to discover what activities parent-teacher associations actually engage in; (2) to consider what place, if any, such an organization should have in our educational program; (3) to undertake an evaluation of present activities to see in what ways, if any, reduction of energy should take place [p. 7].

The activities of nearly eight hundred parent-teacher associations in nine widely scattered states are analyzed in chapter ii, "What Parent-Teacher Associations Do." The judgments of 390 principals and superintendents form the basis for chapter iv, "What Should Parent-Teacher Associations Do?" This chapter attempts to outline the place of the organization in our educational program. In chapter vii, "Measuring the Achievements of the Parent-Teacher Association and Stimulating Its Further Development," the author utilizes the judgments of 113 parent-teacher workers, principals, and superintendents in constructing a self-measuring scale for parent-teacher associations. Other problems, such as the character of the membership, the extent and nature of teacher participation, and the planning of programs, are adequately treated.

In chapter iii, "What Is Education?" the author attempts to justify the existence of the parent-teacher association but adds nothing to the study except a well-written summary of certain aspects of the educational philosophy of Dewey, Peters, and Kilpatrick.

Although a number of conclusions are based on a limited amount of data which may or may not be representative and although the work is open to other criticisms, the author has written a sane, readable book, which should be of service to parents, teachers, principals, superintendents, and other parent-teacher workers.

The appendixes contain admirable tabulations of the data and well-selected references.

HERMAN G. RICHEY

[1] Julian E. Butterworth, *The Parent-Teacher Association and Its Work.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. x+150.

A reference book for the teacher of elementary science.—A valuable reference book[1] for persons interested in elementary science has been prepared by Arthur N. Pack and E. Laurence Palmer. In the first part of the book is a detailed nature calendar, which suggests topics that may be studied each month of the year. This is followed by more than a hundred pages of informational material regarding various associations and clubs interested in the promotion of nature education. The teacher will appreciate this section because it gives information as to how to obtain valuable pamphlets and tells who the people are who are active in nature-study. A running commentary of eighty pages deals with nature education in the United States, showing state by state what is being done and who is doing it. Fifty-eight pages are devoted to an outline of nature-study for the school, which is made up largely of materials selected from the *Nature Magazine*. The book closes with a list of books on various phases of nature-study and a list of nature readers, classified by grades.

As the title indicates, the book is a handy reference book rather than a book to be read from cover to cover.

ELLIOT R. DOWNING

New readers for the primary grades.—A new series of readers[2] for the primary grades has been prepared by Catherine T. Bryce and Rose Lees Hardy; these authors had the assistance of Edna Turpin on Book Three.

The readers are designed to serve as fundamental books in the primary grades. They have many of the characteristics of the traditional readers of a decade ago although they reflect the recent interest in vocabulary control and, in the manuals[3] which accompany the books, the interest in methods of teaching silent reading. The content leaves something to be desired, since the selections are, for the most part, simply reproductions of old classical tales which are already supplied in abundant amount in earlier books. The illustrations are appropriate and in part effective, those in the Primer and in Book One being somewhat more effective than those in Books Two and Three. The manuals which accompany the Primer and Book One give detailed directions to the primary teacher for conducting the reading period. These directions will be most useful to teachers with inadequate training.

[1] *The Nature Almanac:* A Handbook of Nature Education. Edited by Arthur Newton Pack and E. Laurence Palmer. Washington: American Nature Association, 1927. Pp. viii+312. $1.00.

[2] *a*) Catherine T. Bryce and Rose Lees Hardy, *Newson Readers:* Primer (*Playtime*), pp. 128, $0.68; Book One (*Good Times*), pp. 128, $0.68; Book Two (*The Open Door*), pp. 208, $0.76. New York: Newson & Co., 1927.

b) Catherine T. Bryce, Rose Lees Hardy, and Edna Turpin, *Newson Readers:* Book Three (*Storyland*). New York: Newson & Co., 1927. Pp. 288. $0.88.

[3] Catherine T. Bryce and Rose Lees Hardy, assisted by Geneva Johnston Hecox, *Newson Readers:* Teachers' Manual to Primer (*Playtime*), pp. 176, $0.76; Teachers' Manual to Book One (*Good Times*), pp. 176, $0.76. New York: Newson & Co., 1927.

A two-book series of readers[2] for Grades I and II has been prepared by Jessie I. Lummis and Williedell Schawe. These books were written for the purpose of giving instruction in health education. The first book deals, for the most part, with developing proper weight through proper nutrition, whereas the second book contains stories of a miscellaneous type relating to the building of the healthy body. The two books are good examples of the better grade of health readers which have become common in the decade since the war. It still remains to be proved that this type of reading material aids in habits of health, and one might raise the question as to whether the content of such books appeals to children. The books are illustrated very well and are printed in good form.

A different type of book[3] for first-grade children is *The Singing Farmer*, by James S. Tippett. This book presents material concerning farm animals and farm life. It is the type of reading matter to which first-grade children seem to react with great pleasure, although it is difficult to explain their reaction. The book is attractively illustrated and will be a useful addition to the reading table in the first-grade room.

A handbook for instructors of physical education.—In an attempt to expand the activities possible in physical-education classes at the junior high school level, Martin Rodgers has prepared a book[1] of "stunts" which are suitable for children of this age. The "stunts" were selected after careful trial in the junior high schools of New York City.

Schools which are handicapped by lack of space as well as schools which have their activities conducted by persons who have never received expert training will benefit by the variety of programs presented. The "stunts" cover the entire range of physical education. The book opens with an introductory chapter entitled "Principles and Organization of Physical Education." Such items as the scoring of performances, the arranging of class groups, the conducting of tests, and the general administration of a gymnasium are treated in this chapter. Each of the nine following chapters is devoted to one particular kind of activity: "Individual Stunts," "Combat Stunts," "Stunt Games," "Stunt Races," "Mat, Agility, and Tumbling Movements," "Apparatus Stunts," "Athletics," "Miscellaneous Self-Testing Activities," and "Pyramids."

The directions for carrying out the "stunts" are given in such detail that no difficulty will be experienced in using them with classes. Illustrations are provided where necessary to show the various phases of a movement. The book

[2] Jessie I. Lummis and Williedell Schawe, Health Readers: Book One (*The Safety Hill of Health*), pp. vi+90, $0.68; Book Two (*Building My House of Health*), pp. vi+136, $0.72. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1927.

[3] James S. Tippett, *The Singing Farmer*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1927. Pp. vi+90. $0.68.

[1] Martin Rodgers, *A Handbook of Stunts*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. xii+516.

will prove very useful to directors of physical education in both elementary schools and junior high schools.

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